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ABSTRACT

Using data collected in the current population surveys of 1958, 1965, and 1977, this report analyzes the changes that have occurred in the United States in the way women at work provide for the care of their children. Also addressed are issues that both the public and private sectors may encounter in future years; these specifically concern child care services needed by the increasing number of working women with young children. An examination of the child care arrangements used by working women in Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany (two countries where the demographic conditions and social service systems are quite different from those currently found in the United States) is made in order to provide an idea of how families in other industrialized nations face this issue. Numerous charts and tables of data, illustrating the issues discussed, are included in the report. Definitions, explanations, and descriptions of some aspects of the population survey data are appended, along with a copy of a supplementary questionnaire. (MP)

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Trends in Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers

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Trends in Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers

by
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and Martin O'Connell

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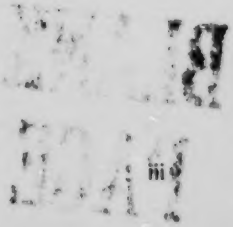
Preface

This monograph is part of the Special Studies Series (P-23) of analytical reports prepared by demographers in the Population Division, Bureau of the Census. These reports present a broad analysis of topical issues to increase the understanding of the statistics and their possible implications for public policy. The usual scope of these studies is broader than that of annual Census Bureau reports on population trends and characteristics.

Using data collected in the Current Population Surveys of 1958, 1965, and 1977, this report analyzes the child care arrangements used by the growing number of U.S. families where the mother of young children is in the labor force—a subject on which little data have existed at the national level. Also addressed are the issues that both the public and private sectors may encounter in future years concerning the child care services needed by the increasing numbers of working women with young children. The child care arrangements used by parents in Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany, two countries where the demographic conditions and social service systems are quite different from those currently found in the United States, are also examined to provide the reader with an idea of how families in other industrialized nations face this issue.

The data in this report from the June 1977 Current Population Survey were collected, in part, with funding from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Department of Health and Human Services.



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Trends in Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers

INTRODUCTION

The rapid change in family formation and childrearing patterns throughout the social history of the United States has all but rendered obsolete the use of the word "traditional" to describe household and family lifestyles. In retrospect, the "traditional" family of the 19th century brings to mind an extended family with several generations living and working together in rural America. In contrast, the "traditional" family of the 1950's has been pictured as a husband-wife family where the husband was usually the family wage earner and the wife characteristically stayed home and cared for the children; only one-sixth of married women with children under 6 years of age in 1955 were in the labor force.

Future generations may someday describe the "traditional" American family of the 1980's as one where both the husband and wife are employed and their young children are cared for by a nonfamily member while the mother and father are at work. This might be a likely assessment since by 1980 almost one-half of the 11 million wives who had children under the age of 6 were in the labor force. In 1980, there were 7.5 million pre-school-age children in the United States whose mothers were in the labor force; this number is projected to increase to over 10 million by 1990.

The decisions and difficulties families with two working parents encounter today are not that different from the problems these families faced a generation ago. What is different is the increasing number of families with working parents who must face these problems. At the same time, there is a greater social awareness of issues such as the establishment of community child care centers or the initiation of legislation providing financial assistance, tax benefits, or job security for persons who want to have children without being penalized in the labor market.

This analysis highlights the issues that both the public and private sectors may encounter in future years concerning the child care provisions utilized by working families with children. This report focuses on the changes that have occurred in the United States since the 1950's in the way women provide for the care of their children while they are at work. The principal data sources used in this analysis are child care supplements to the Current Population Survey (CPS) conducted in June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977. (See appendix B for detailed information on these surveys.)

Previous research based on the data collected in the June 1977 CPS has addressed the issue of child care as a constraint on women seeking employment.[1] The arrangements used by part-time and full-time workers, women in different occupations, and city and suburban working mothers will be analyzed in this report to identify the potential child care needs of working women associated with future changes in the labor force and the characteristics of American families. In addition, an examination of the child care arrangements used by working women in other industrialized countries, some having more comprehensive social service systems than the United States, will be made and may serve as an indicator of possible future trends in the United States.

LABOR FORCE TRENDS IN THE UNITED STATES

The increasing presence of women in the labor force has become a salient feature of the American labor force since the 1940's.[2] In March 1940, 14 million women (27 percent of the female population 14 years old and over) were in the labor force; this number gradually increased during the baby boom years of the 1950's, reaching 23 million by March 1960 (35 percent of women 14 years old and over). Further increases in the numbers of women in the labor force, coinciding with the sharp decline in fertility since 1960, resulted in approximately 44 million women in the labor force by March 1980, or 51 percent of the female population 16 years old and over.

Of the 44 million women in the labor force in the United States in March 1980, 24 million were wives living with their husbands, 9 million were other ever-married women (widowed, divorced, separated, and other married with husband absent), and 11 million had never been married; this distribution by marital status was essentially the same in 1980 as it was in 1960. This is in sharp contrast to the composition of the labor force in 1940 when less than one-third of the 14 million women in the labor force were currently married and living with their husbands.

Labor force participation of women with children. Most of the increase in the labor force participation of women has been the result of the entry of mothers into the labor force, especially those with young children.[3] Between 1950 and

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[1] Harriet B. Presser and Wendy Bladwin, "Child Care as a Constraint on Employment: Prevalence, Correlates, and Bearing on the Work and Fertility Nexus," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 85, No. 5 (March 1980), pp. 1202-1213. Using other data sources, other researchers have attempted to develop models involving the choice of child care arrangements used by working wives. See Greg J. Duncan and C. Russell Hill, "Modal Choice in Child Care Arrangements," in Greg J. Duncan and James N. Morgan, eds., *Five Thousand American Families–Patterns of Economic Progress*, Vol. II (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1975), pp. 235-258; Katherine Dickinson, "Child Care," *ibid.*, pp. 221-233.

[2] Labor force data in this section are from the following sources: 1940—U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-50, No. 29; 1960—Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Reports, No. 13; 1980—Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers, March 1980*, USDL 80-767.

[3] Throughout this report, the phrases "working women with children" and "working mothers" will be used interchangeably. Children cared for by a woman include not only her own natural children but also adopted children, stepchildren, and other children who are part of the household and under her care. Foster children are excluded from the analysis.

1980, the labor force participation rate for wives with children under 18 increased from 18 to 54 percent, while the rate for other ever-married women with children increased from 55 to 69 percent during the same period (table A-1).

Among wives with children under 18 years old, the greatest labor force increases were recorded by women with pre-school-age children (under 6 years old). The increase in their labor force participation rate from 12 percent in 1950 to 45 percent in 1980 is especially notable since most of these women were working outside the home and had to make some arrangement for the care of their young children (figure 1).

Not only are there more women working today, but there are many who begin or return to work shortly after the birth of a child, and thus face the often competing roles of mother and worker. Data from the June 1977 Current Population Survey indicate that of the 11.6 million mothers 18 to 44 years old in 1977 with a child under 5 years of age, 4.7 million (41 percent) were currently in the labor force (table A-2). Women who were currently married had a lower participation rate than women of all other marital statuses (39 and 49 percent, respectively). Even among women with a child under 1 year old, 31 percent of currently married women and 40 percent of all other women were in the labor force (figure 2). These are very high percentages considering that few child care facilities will accept infants.

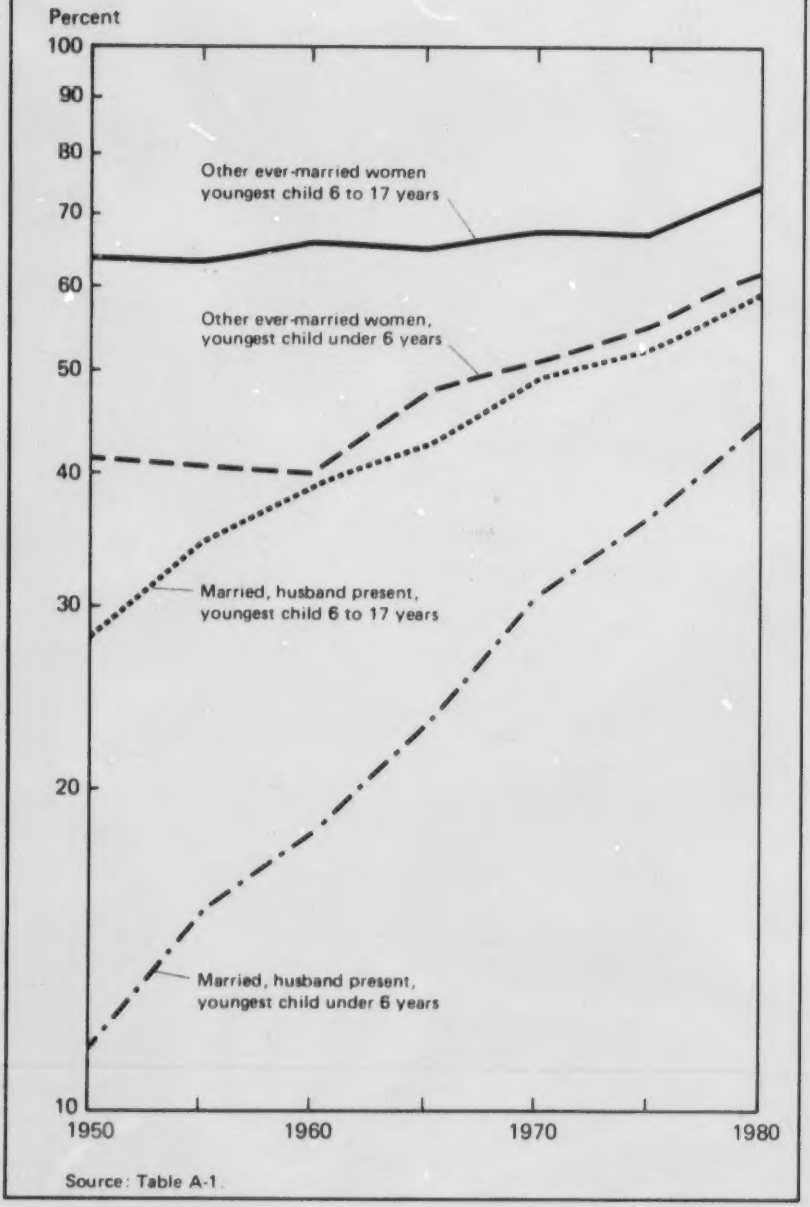
Despite these high labor force participation rates, figure 2 shows that the unemployment rate for women with infants is very high and is about twice as high for unmarried women as it is for married women. Especially disadvantaged are unmarried women with children under 2 years old: 1 out of every 3 women in the labor force was unemployed. Since mothers with young children are more restricted in terms of time and place of work than are childless women or women with older children, they tend to have a higher unemployment rate. In addition, unmarried women who are usually in less favorable economic circumstances than their married counterparts, have to seek full-time rather than part-time work, further restricting their job opportunities and resulting in higher unemployment rates (table A-2). Along with financial disadvantages, the loss of the father's presence as a potential caretaker for the child further reduces a woman's chances of obtaining suitable employment.

CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS FROM 1958 TO 1977

As a result of the radical changes in women's labor force behavior in the past few decades, there has been a shift away from in-home child care to care outside the home (typically in an unrelated person's home) or in group care centers.[4] This trend has been especially pronounced for children with well-educated mothers, full-time working mothers, and mothers with relatively high family income levels who can afford to pay for child care services. Data presented in this section

[4] For the purposes of this report, the term "group care center" includes all types of child care, day care, and group care centers in addition to nursery schools, preschools, and kindergartens. Group care, then, is used in its broadest sociological interpretation, and not used to denote a specific administrative or educational program.

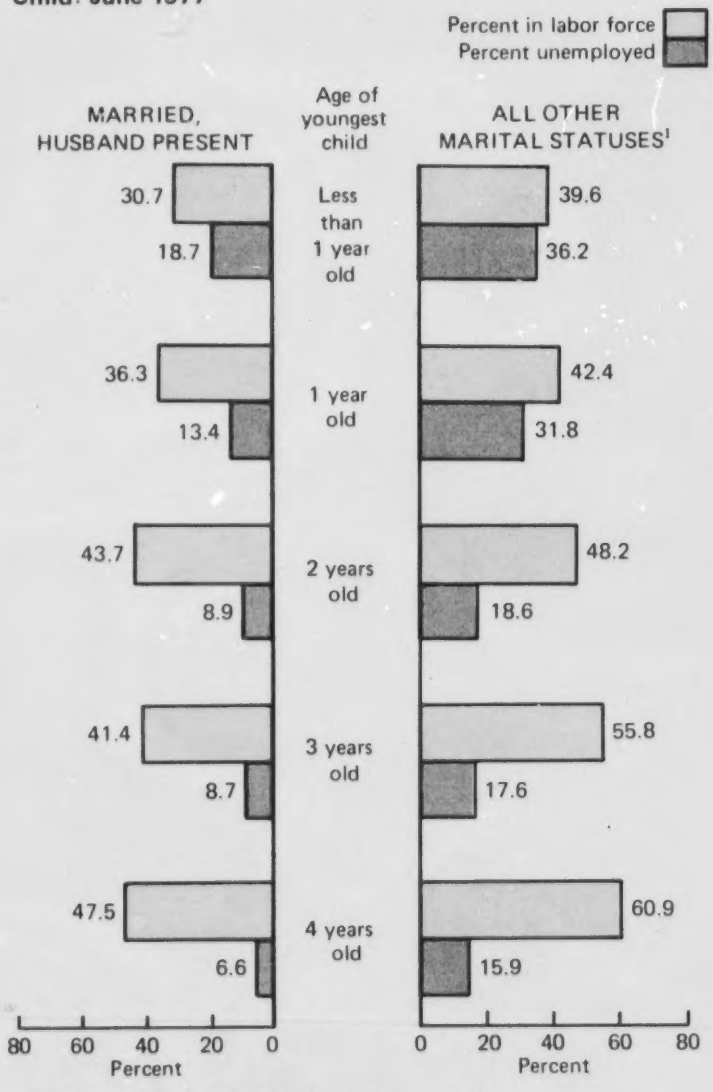
FIGURE 1.
Labor Force Participation Rates: March 1950-80



Source: Table A-1.

FIGURE 2.

Percentage of Women 18 to 44 Years Old in the Labor Force and Unemployment Rate for Women in the Labor Force, by Marital Status of the Woman and Age of Youngest Child: June 1977



[1] Includes married, husband absent (including separated), widowed, divorced, and never-married women.

Source: Table A-2.

focuses on the distribution of children by the principal type of child care arrangement their mothers use while they are working. Because of data restrictions, child care provisions are shown for children of ever-married women.

An overall perspective on the changes in child care arrangements used for children under 6 whose mothers were working is shown in table A.[5] In 1958, 57 percent of the young children of full-time working mothers were cared for in their own homes while their mothers were working: 15 percent were cared for by their fathers, while the remaining children were cared for either by other relatives (28

Table A. Percent Distribution of Children Under 6 Years Old of Ever-Married Working Women, by Type of Child Care Arrangements and Employment Status of Mother: 1958-77

Type of child care arrangement and employment status of mother	1977[1]	1965	1958
Employed Full Time			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	28.6	47.2	56.6
By father	10.6	10.3	14.7
By other relative	11.4	18.4	27.7
By nonrelative	6.6	18.5	14.2
Care in another home	47.4	37.3	27.1
By relative	20.8	17.6	14.5
By nonrelative	26.6	19.6	12.7
Group care center	14.6	8.2	4.5
Child cares for self	0.3	0.3	0.6
Mother cares for child while working	8.2	6.7	11.2
All other arrangements	0.8	0.4	
Employed Part Time			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	42.7	47.0	(NA)
By father	23.1	22.9	(NA)
By other relative	11.2	15.6	(NA)
By nonrelative	8.4	8.6	(NA)
Care in another home	28.8	17.0	(NA)
By relative	13.2	9.1	(NA)
By nonrelative	15.6	7.9	(NA)
Group care center	9.1	2.7	(NA)
Child cares for self	0.5	0.9	(NA)
Mother cares for child while working	18.5	32.3	(NA)
All other arrangements	0.4	–	(NA)

NA Not available.
– Rounds to zero.
[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.
Source: Table A-3.

[5] Data for 1977 are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old (less than 2 percent of all women in 1977 who had any children under 5 years had up to three children under age 5). The omission of children 5 years old and information for children higher than parity two and under 5 years old in 1977 tend to bias the distribution of child care services towards one characteristic of younger children. The principal result of these omissions would be to understate, for 1977, the proportions of all children under 6 years old cared for in group care centers, including children in school while the mother is working.

percent) or nonrelatives (14 percent) coming into the home. If a child was sent to someone else's home, it usually was to a relative's home. Group care services were little used in 1958 (about 5 percent), and about 11 percent of the children were cared for by their mothers while at work.

By 1977, a marked change had occurred in child care arrangements utilized by American women who were employed full time; only 29 percent of pre-school-age children were cared for in their own homes, while 47 percent were cared for in another's home, usually by someone who was not related to the child. The use of group care services increased threefold to 15 percent, and care by either the mother or father fell from a total of 26 percent in 1958 to 19 percent in 1977.

Women who work part time exhibit different patterns of child care arrangement than do full-time working mothers; in many cases, the availability and cost of child care may determine the amount of time a mother can work away from home. Part-time working mothers in 1977 used in-home care to a greater extent (43 percent) than full-time working mothers (29 percent) and also were more able to look after their children while at work. However, decline from 32 percent in 1965 to 19 percent in 1977 was recorded in the proportion of children being cared for by their mothers while working part time. To offset this change, a greater proportion of children were placed in other people's homes (29 percent) and group care centers (9 percent) in 1977 than in 1965 (17 and 3 percent, respectively). Child care by the father is especially important for women who work part time; in both 1965 and 1977, 23 percent of the children of mothers working part time were cared for by their fathers.

This movement away from in-home child care toward out-of-home sources has increased public awareness of the availability of such services to enhance a woman's employment opportunities, make the dual roles of mother and worker more compatible, and reduce the often disruptive effects of childbearing and childrearing on the progress of a woman's career. Changes in child care arrangements are closely related to changes in household and family living arrangements. Divorced and separated women with children usually lose the father's services for daytime child care and, in many cases, suffer the loss of "in-laws" for similar services. In addition, the sharp reductions of in-home care by relatives and nonrelatives alike that have occurred between 1958 and 1977 reflect the general increase in labor force participation for all women; the "next door neighbor" of the 1950's who may have been available for child care services is very likely to be out working herself in the 1980's.

Arrangements for very young children. The type of child care arrangements used by working mothers is contingent not only on financial and family circumstances but also on the age of the child needing care. Child care centers, daytime sitters, and even relatives may often be unwilling to assume the responsibility for infant care. The principal differences between child care arrangements for younger versus older children seem to lie in the relative proportions of children placed in either someone else's home or in group care centers. In examining the types of arrangements used for pre-school-age children, older children (3 years and over) tended to be cared for in group care centers to a greater degree than were younger

children; this pattern persisted in both 1965 and 1977, regardless of the employment status of the mother (table B). This finding is to be expected since once the decision is made to provide care for children outside the home, the likelihood that a child will be accepted in a group care institution, such as a nursery school or Headstart Center, increases with the child's age.

For women with more than one young child in the household, available data indicate that the majority of mothers tend to use the same arrangement for all children. A comparison of the child care services used by women for their two youngest children under 5 years old in 1977 reveals that 95 percent of the mothers surveyed used the same principal arrangement for both children. When a different arrangement is used for the older child, it typically involves the placement of the older child in some type of group care center.

In-home care of children. Declines in the proportion of children cared for in their own homes between 1965 and 1977 were recorded in virtually every socio-economic status group (figure 3). Most of these declines resulted from reduced proportions of children with in-home care provided by relatives or nonrelatives rather than from reductions in the participation of the father in providing child care services.

An interesting pattern is revealed in figure 3 regarding the principal caretaker of the child in the home. In both 1965 and 1977, a higher ratio of nonrelatives to relatives (excluding the father) cared for White children than for Black children, for children with college-educated mothers than for other children, and for children who live in families with relatively high income levels. In many cases, the choice of a nonrelative as a caretaker for the child may be dictated by convenience or simply the absence of relatives in the area. In other cases, the family's economic situation may restrict the use of nonrelatives because they receive larger child care cash payments than do relatives.

Table B. Percentage of Children Cared for in Another Home or in Group Care Center

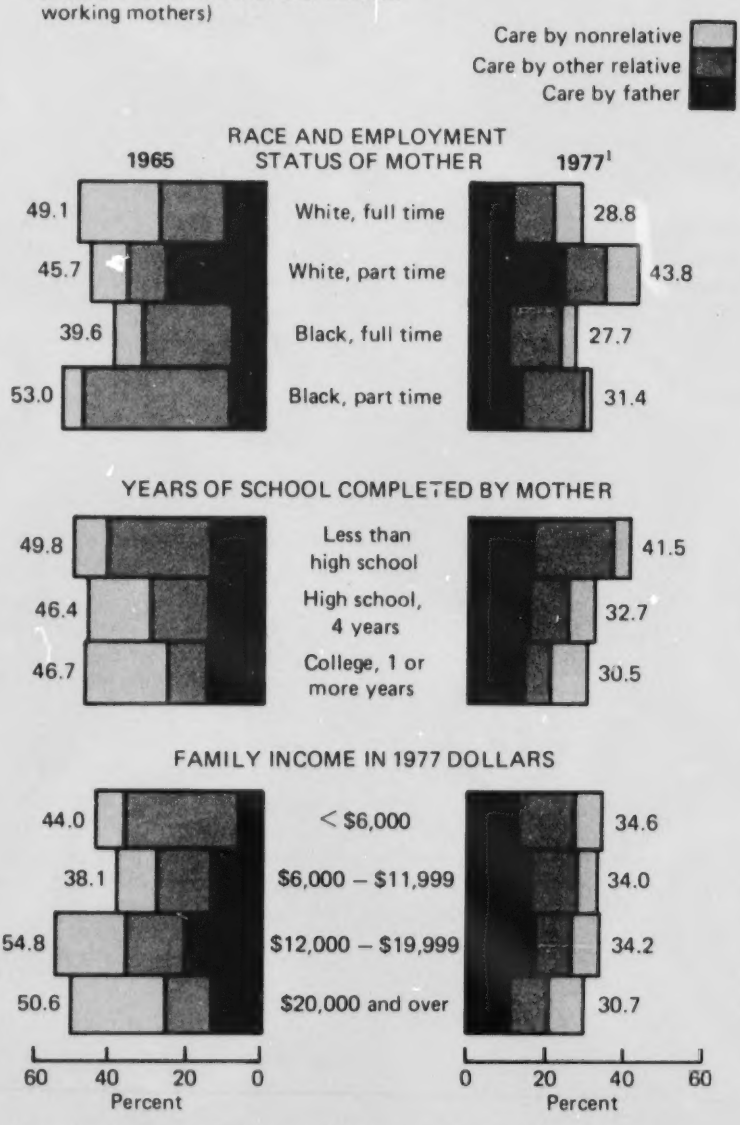
Type of arrangement and employment status of mother	1977		1965	
	Under 3 years	3 and 4 years	Under 3 years	3 to 5 years
Full time				
Total	62.5	62.9	46.5	44.8
Care in another home	53.4	41.7	41.7	34.3
Group care center	9.1	21.2	4.8	10.5
Part time				
Total	37.7	38.9	20.6	19.3
Care in another home	32.2	24.7	19.7	15.4
Group care center	5.5	14.2	0.9	3.9

Source: Table A-3.

FIGURE 3.

Percentage of Children Under 6 Years Old Cared for in the Child's Home, by Principal Caretaker: 1965 and 1977

(Data are for children of ever-married working mothers)



[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

Source: Tables A-4, A-5, and A-6.

The incidence of child care by the father while the mother works is different between White families and Black families (table A-7). In 1977, White children were cared for by the father to a greater extent than were Black children when the mother worked part time (26 percent and 14 percent, respectively). No difference was indicated in married-couple families where the mother worked full time (both 12 percent). This pattern suggests that part-time work and employment patterns of White families may be more amenable to dual parental child care than those of Black families. This could be due to differences in the duration of the part-time work, the daily work schedule (evenings or weekends versus weekdays), and the relative importance between White and Black families in the potential earnings lost by the husband when caring for the child.

Care for children outside the home. The movement of child care services from the child's home to other people's homes or group care centers is evident among all socioeconomic groups (figures 4 and 5). For higher income families and families where the mother has some college education, most of the increase in the use of out-of-home care between 1965 and 1977 has resulted from increases in the proportion of children cared for in nonrelative's homes and day care centers rather than in homes of relatives.

A cross-section of American families in 1977 indicates that, regardless of the income of the family, approximately 50 to 55 percent of the children of working women were cared for in either other people's homes or in group care centers (table A-6). However, as the income level of the family increases, the proportion of children cared for in a relative's home decreases. Among families with incomes of less than $6,000 in 1977, 25 percent of the children were cared for in a relative's home. This percentage fell to 9 percent for families with incomes of $20,000 and over. Conversely, the proportion of children of ever-married working women that were cared for in group care centers ranged from 9 percent for families in the lowest income class to 18 percent for families in the highest income class.

The growth in the use of out-of-home care for children can be traced to various social and economic changes that have reduced the number of potential in-home caretakers for children. With today's smaller families, the number of older siblings available to serve as caretakers has decreased over time. The rise in separation and divorce rates in recent years has probably induced a number of women, who once may have stayed home to care for their own, relative's, or neighbor's children, to enter the labor force and become "careseekers" for their own children rather than serve as caretakers of someone else's children.[6]

COSTS OF CHILD CARE

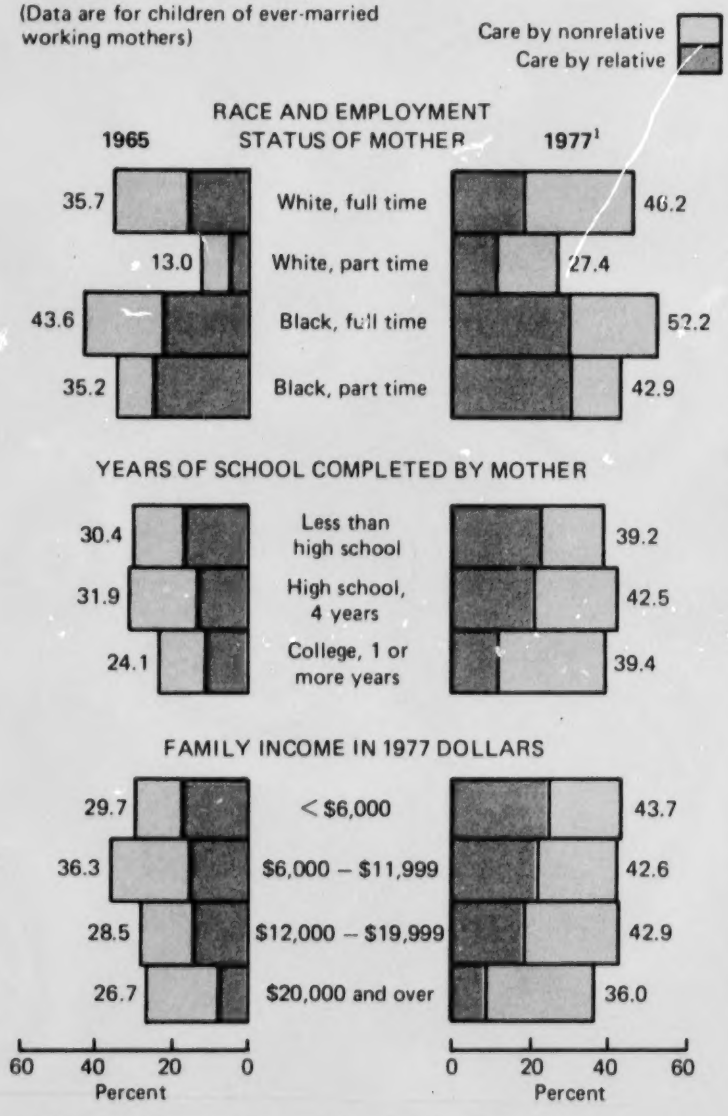
With increasing numbers of children being cared for outside the home, it is likely that the costs of child care services are becoming a more integral part of the household budget. Although it is not possible to determine from the data in this

[6] Sandra L. Hofferth, "Day Care in the Next Decade: 1980-1990," *Journal of Marriage and the Family* (August 1979), pp. 649-658.

FIGURE 4.

Percentage of Children Under 6 Years Old Cared for in a Home Other Than the Child's, by Principal Caretaker: 1965 and 1977

(Data are for children of ever-married working mothers)



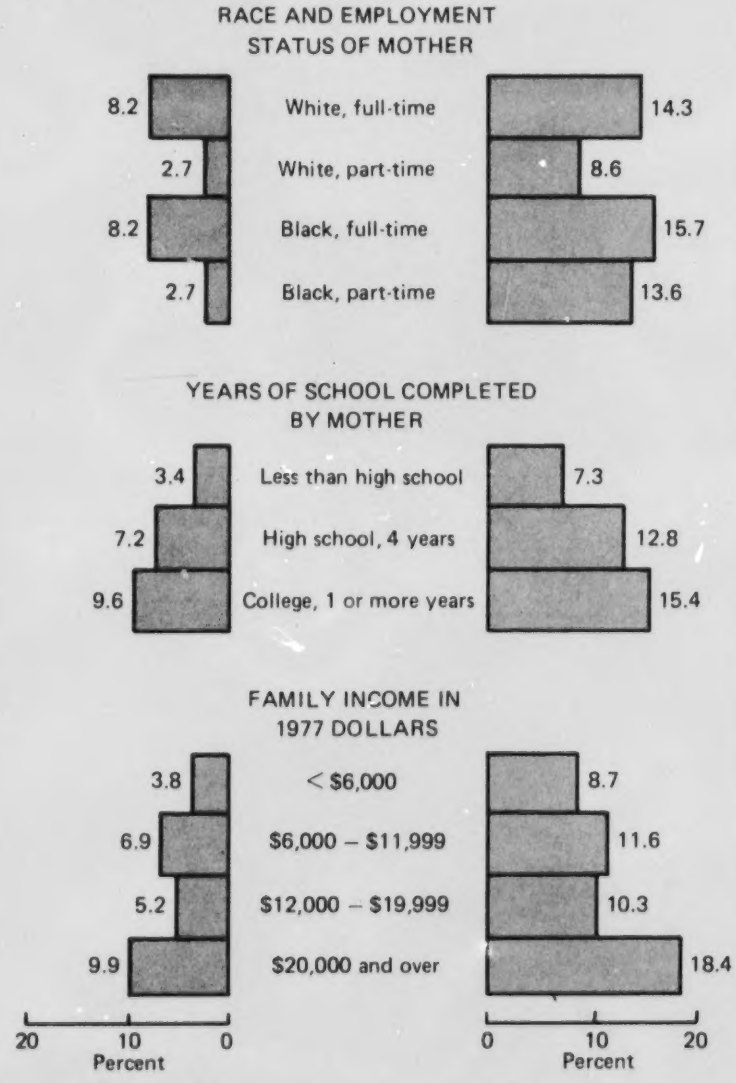
[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

Source: Tables A-4, A-5, and A-6.

FIGURE 5.

Percentage of Children Under 6 Years Old Cared for in a Group Care Center: 1965 and 1977

(Data are for children of ever-married working mothers)



[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

Source: Tables A-4, A-5, and A-6.

study the exact amount of cash payment for various types of child care arrangements, it is possible to identify families which typically pay for child care arrangements during the time the mother is at work.

Table C shows the percentage of working women making a cash payment for the care of their youngest child under 5 years old, by the type of arrangement used by the mother.[7] Data for 1977 reveal, regardless of race, that a cash payment was made in over 90 percent of the cases where care was provided by either nonrelatives or in group care centers. Use of a relative who was not a member of the child's immediate family resulted in the lowest incidence of cash payment: 44 percent for care in the child's home and 62 percent for care in a relative's home. In terms of actual monetary costs, other studies have found that among the different types of child care arrangements utilized, the cost per hour for organized group care was the highest, the cost of using relatives was the lowest, and the cost for the use of nonrelatives was intermediate.[8]

Socioeconomic differences in costs of child care. The analysis of the factors involved with payment for child care services is very complex. Table D presents a multiple classification analysis[9] of the percentage of mothers paying for child care services in order to assess the simultaneous effect of many factors on a family's usage of child care arrangements that require a cash payment. Two types of percentages are shown in this table: the column labeled "unadjusted percent" shows the percentage of women in each category who reported using arrangements requiring cash payments; the column labeled "adjusted percent" represents

Table C. Percentage of Women Paying for Child Care for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement	All races		White		Black	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Care in child's home	631	64.3	501	70.3	117	39.0
By nonfamily relative. .	383	44.0	274	49.3	99	29.4
By nonrelative.	248	95.4	227	95.6	18	(B)
Care in another home. . . .	1,574	81.3	1,237	82.4	293	76.9
By nonfamily relative. .	706	62.3	501	61.2	188	66.3
By nonrelative.	868	96.8	736	96.7	105	96.6
Group care center.	488	92.6	373	93.1	98	90.2

B Base too small to show derived measure.

Note: Information on whether or not a cash payment for child care was made was obtained only in the case of care being given by a nonfamily relative or a nonrelative of the child.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

[7] Data are shown only for the youngest child under 5 years old since the type of care used for all children, regardless of age, is the same in 95 percent of the cases.

[8] Mary Jo Bane, *et al.*, "Child-care Arrangements of Working Parents," *Monthly Labor Review* (October 1979), pp. 50-56.

[9] For a further explanation, see Frank M. Andrews, James N. Morgan, and John A. Songuist, *Multiple Classification Analysis* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1969).

the standardized percentage, adjusted for the relationships of each characteristic with other characteristics shown in the table. For example, significant differences in the percentage of women paying cash for child care services do not emerge between White women and Black women working part time until adjustments are made for their socioeconomic characteristics (table D).

Over one-half of the working mothers in the survey (57 percent) reported that they made a direct cash payment for child care services for their youngest child

Table D. Multiple Classification Analysis of Cash Payments for Child Care for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old of Working Women: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics of mother	Number of women[1]	Percent paying for child care	
		Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total	3,542	57.0	(X)
Race and Employment Status			
White, full time	1,869	65.6	65.2
White, part time	1,084	41.9	41.7
Black, full time	464	60.7	60.9
Black, part time	125	45.9	52.5
Marital Status			
Married, husband present	2,890	55.5	54.1
All other marital statuses	652	63.6	69.6
Household Composition			
Other adult female present	350	41.2	36.4
No other adult female present	3,192	58.7	59.2
Family Income			
Less than $6,000	478	51.1	49.3
$6,000 to $11,999	1,068	54.9	54.8
$12,000 to $19,999	1,285	56.8	58.0
$20,000 or more	710	64.3	63.6
Occupation			
Professional-managerial	668	65.7	64.4
Clerical and sales workers	1,365	62.9	61.5
Blue collar and service workers	1,418	49.5	51.0
Farm workers	90	20.8	27.3

X Not applicable.

[1] Data refer to the weighted number of women. Numbers of women and percents (unadjusted) may differ from those shown in other tables because of different universe restrictions. Women of races other than White or Black and women with no report on family income are omitted from this analysis.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

under 5 years of age (unadjusted column). This proportion differed significantly among women by race, employment and marital status, household composition, family income, and occupation. A greater proportion of full-time than part-time working mothers paid cash for child care services, with no significant differences in the frequency of payment emerging between White women and Black women working full time. However, after adjusting for the different characteristics of the women, 53 percent of Black women and 42 percent of White women who worked at part-time jobs were estimated to have paid for child care services for their youngest child under 5 years of age.

The principal reason for racial differences in the percentage of part-time workers making cash payments for child care arrangements is the type of arrangements used by the two racial groups (table A-7). Many more White part-time workers (46 percent) use the "costfree" arrangement of either having the father or mother care for the child than do Black part-time workers (16 percent).

The living arrangements of the women also affect the probability of making cash payments for child care. Because of the loss of husbands or fathers as caretakers, unmarried women are more likely to pay for child care services than married women. The presence of an adult female in the household other than the mother also affects whether or not a cash payment was made for child care. In those households with another adult female present, only 41 percent of the mothers paid for child care as compared with 59 percent of the households with no other adult female present. This suggests that adult female relatives or unrelated female roomers in the household may provide child care at either no cost or in exchange for room and board or other forms of in-kind payment. However, this kind of arrangement is the exception rather than the rule in the United States; only 10 percent of the women surveyed resided in households where another adult female was present.

The economic status of the family was also related to differences in the percentage paying for child care services. The proportion of women who paid cash for child care increased with the level of family income: one-half of the women with family incomes under $6,000 paid cash for child care services, while about two-thirds of the women with family incomes of $20,000 or more paid for these services. Among women in different occupations, those employed in white-collar jobs paid cash for child care in over 60 percent of the cases reported in the survey. Fifty percent of women in either blue-collar or service occupations paid for such services, while only 21 percent of farm workers reported making cash payments. As is shown later in this report, child care arrangements used by women in white-collar occupations tend to be more costly (e.g., use of nonrelatives and group care services) than those used by women in other occupations.

PROFILES OF WORKING MOTHERS

The data in the previous sections have shown the importance of family members in the care of young children while the mother is working. The problems that unmarried women encounter in securing daytime care for their young children may be accentuated by the loss of support from the child's father both

financially and as a caretaker. Since more unmarried than married women are forced to seek full-time employment, flexibility in working hours is reduced and periods of child care are of greater duration. Data in the following sections are shown for the youngest child under 5 years old of working women and highlight differences in child care arrangements used by married and unmarried mothers.

Kinship networks. Table E presents detailed data on the child care arrangements in 1977 for a woman's youngest child under 5 years old, by the marital status of the woman. Despite the almost total loss of the father as a child care provider for unmarried working women (less than 1 percent of the children were cared for by the father), 31 percent of unmarried women still managed to arrange in-home care for the child, about the same percentage as that provided by currently married

Table E. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangement Used for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Race, Marital Status, and Employment Status of Mother: June 1977

Type of child care arrangement and marital status of mother	All races			White	Black
	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Total employed
Married, Husband Present					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	33.4	28.3	42.5	34.4	28.1
By father	16.9	12.4	24.7	17.6	12.3
By other relative	9.8	9.6	10.2	9.5	12.1
By nonrelative	6.7	6.3	7.6	7.3	3.7
Care in another home	41.3	48.5	29.0	39.6	52.1
By relative	18.3	21.2	13.3	16.1	34.3
By nonrelative	23.0	27.3	15.7	23.5	17.8
Group care center	11.6	13.6	8.1	11.0	15.0
Mother cares for child while working	12.6	8.5	19.8	13.9	4.6
Other arrangements[1]	1.0	1.2	0.6	1.0	0.3
All Other Marital Statuses					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	31.0	29.9	35.4	29.0	34.0
By father	0.5	0.6	–	–	1.3
By other relative	24.7	23.8	28.4	21.1	30.8
By nonrelative	5.8	5.5	7.0	7.9	1.9
Care in another home	43.9	45.4	37.5	45.2	42.4
By relative	21.0	21.2	20.0	17.9	26.4
By nonrelative	22.9	24.2	17.5	27.3	16.0
Group care center	18.9	19.0	18.6	19.8	17.3
Mother cares for child while working	4.5	4.1	6.0	4.8	4.1
Other arrangements[1]	1.7	1.4	2.6	1.2	2.3

– Rounds to zero.
[1] Includes child taking care of self.

Source: Table A-7

women (33 percent). The vast majority of the children of unmarried women were cared for by relatives in the home (25 percent), while the primary in-home caretaker for children of married women was the father (17 percent). In-home child care by relatives is especially important for Black unmarried women; 31 percent of the children of these women were cared for in the home, compared with 21 percent of the children of White unmarried women.

Table F presents a multiple classification analysis of child care by relatives (excluding parental care) for working women with children under 5 years old in 1977. Regardless of employment status, Black women tended to rely more heavily on care by relatives than did White women. The use of relatives was also more prevalent among women in low-income families, because the associated child care costs for relatives were lower than that for nonrelatives or group care centers. Among working women, care by relatives was equally prevalent among both clerical/sales workers and blue-collar/service workers (about one-third of both groups used relatives). Women who were either professional workers or managers tended to use relatives the least (16 percent), and women who were farm workers used relatives in 26 percent of the cases. These differences may reflect the effect of the women's wage and work schedule on the choice of child care arrangement.

Families with adult females in the household also used relative care more than twice as frequently as did those households with no other adult females present. This suggests that where there may be an extended family situation, the time of female relatives was used as a substitute for parental or nonrelative child care. Data from this survey indicate that another adult female was present in 5 percent of households where the mother was married and in 31 percent of households where the mother was unmarried (table A-8).

Although the data in table E and the unadjusted percentages in table F indicate that unmarried mothers use relatives for child care to a greater extent than do married mothers, the adjusted or standardized percentages in table F indicate no significant difference between married and unmarried mothers in the use of relatives for child care (both about 30 percent). This suggests that the use of relatives by women in these two marital status groups is actually a function of different social and economic characteristics of the women rather than marital status *per se*. Apparently, unmarried women are more likely to have economic and social characteristics which are associated with a high incidence of the use of relatives for child care; a disproportionate number of unmarried women are Black, in low-income categories, with blue-collar/service worker jobs, and living in households where other adult females are present (table A-8).

Use of group care services. Ironically, it is the unmarried woman who can probably least afford the cost of group care, yet she uses it the most. In 1977, 19 percent of unmarried women used group care services for their youngest child under 5 years old, compared with 12 percent for currently married women. Unlike part-time working wives who used group care services (8 percent) less than full-time working wives (14 percent), both full-time and part-time working women who were unmarried used group care for their children in almost 1 out of every 5 cases (table E).

Table F. Multiple Classification Analysis of Use of Relatives for Child Care for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old of Working Women: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics of mother	Number of women[1]	Percent using relatives[2]	
		Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total	3,542	29.9	(X)
Race and Employment Status			
White, full time	1,869	29.5	29.7
White, part time	1,084	21.1	23.3
Black, full time	464	45.0	41.1
Black, part time	125	55.6	47.6
Marital Status			
Married, husband present	2,890	27.0	30.2
All other marital statuses	652	42.5	28.4
Household Composition			
Other adult female present	350	64.3	60.5
No other adult female present	3,192	26.1	26.5
Family Income			
Less than $6,000	478	38.2	33.1
$6,000 to $11,999	1,068	33.5	32.1
$12,000 to $19,999	1,285	30.1	31.2
$20,000 or more	710	18.5	22.0
Occupation			
Professional-managerial	668	16.1	21.9
Clerical and sales workers	1,365	31.3	32.3
Blue-collar and service workers	1,418	35.2	31.6
Farm workers	90	26.0	25.4

X Not applicable.

[1] Data refer to the weighted number of women. Numbers of women and percents (unadjusted) may differ from those shown in other tables because of different universe restrictions. Women of races other than White or Black and women with no report on family income are omitted from this analysis.

[2] Omits mothers and fathers caring for the child.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table G presents a multiple classification analysis of the percentage of women using some type of group care service. In general, the socioeconomic differences in the percentage of women using group care services remain unchanged and distinct even after the standardization technique is employed. Those most likely to use group care are unmarried women, full-time working women, families with working mothers in white-collar occupations, and women whose family income is relatively

Table G. Multiple Classification Analysis of Use of Group Care Centers for Child Care for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old of Working Women: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics of mother	Number of women[1]	Percent using group care	
		Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total	3,542	12.4	(X)
Race and Employment Status			
White, full time	1,869	13.6	13.3
White, part time	1,084	9.0	9.4
Black, full time	464	17.0	16.6
Black, part time	125	5.9	8.5
Marital Status			
Married, husband present	2,890	11.0	10.1
All other marital statuses	652	18.6	22.5
Household Composition			
Other adult female present	350	6.6	3.3
No other adult female present	3,192	13.0	13.4
Family Income			
Less than $6,000	478	10.2	7.6
$6,000 to $11,999	1,068	12.1	12.4
$12,000 to $19,999	1,285	9.9	10.7
$20,000 or more	710	18.8	18.5
Occupation			
Professional-managerial	668	18.7	17.7
Clerical and sales workers	1,365	15.5	15.0
Blue-collar and service workers	1,418	7.0	7.7
Farm workers	90	2.3	5.7

X Not applicable.

[1] Data refer to the weighted number of women. Numbers of women and percents (unadjusted) may differ from those shown in other tables because of different universe restrictions. Women of races other than White or Black and women with no report on family income are omitted from this analysis.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

high and who live in households with no other adult female present. No major differences are found in the use of group care services between White women and Black women in the same employment status categories.

In addition to the higher percentage of children of unmarried working women placed in group care centers, care by the mother herself while she was at work was much less frequent among unmarried women; only 5 percent of unmarried women

cared for their children on the job while 13 percent of married women were able to do so (table E). Even among part-time workers, only 6 percent of unmarried women cared for their children while working, compared with 20 percent of married women.

It may be that an unmarried woman with small children may not be as fortunate as a married woman in securing a job with favorable child care arrangements and, as such, probably suffers more financial and emotional costs when providing care for her family. Other family members and relatives, however, appear to be very supportive in providing care for the unmarried woman's children.

PROFILES OF WORKING WIVES

The type of child care utilized by a working mother with young children is influenced considerably by her type of work. The degree of flexibility in the work schedule, the proximity of the work site to nearby child care facilities or sitters, and earned income are all important determinants of the type of child care arrangements used by families where the mother is working.

Although the data from the CPS do not reveal *why* women choose a specific type of child care, the statistics suggest *how* women with different social characteristics confront the task of securing child care while they are at work. The data in this section are analyzed for the youngest child under 5 years old of full-time working women living with their husbands.

Occupation and residence. The type of child care arrangements used by working wives by occupation and residence are shown in table H. In general, the data for

Table H. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangement Used for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, of Full-Time Working Wives, by Occupation of Wife and Residence: June 1977

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed[1]	Occupation of wife		
		Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue-collar and service workers
All Areas				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	28.3	22.8	21.5	37.7
By father	12.4	9.4	8.6	18.7
By other relative	9.6	3.8	7.8	13.5
By nonrelative	6.3	9.6	5.1	5.5
Care in another home	48.5	52.8	53.9	42.8
By relative	21.2	13.2	26.3	21.4
By nonrelative	27.3	39.6	27.6	21.4
Group care center	13.6	17.4	18.6	7.3
Mother cares for child while working	8.5	5.7	4.0	12.0
Other arrangements[2]	1.2	1.3	2.0	0.3

Table H. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangement Used for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, of Full-Time Working Wives, by Occupation of Wife and Residence: June 1977—Continued

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed[1]	Occupation of wife		
		Professional and managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue-collar and service workers
Central Cities				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	31.0	31.5	23.0	40.1
By father	15.4	17.3	11.7	19.2
By other relative	9.6	1.9	8.1	15.3
By nonrelative	6.0	12.3	3.2	5.6
Care in another home	47.0	49.1	51.3	40.6
By relative	21.6	12.4	28.2	18.2
By nonrelative	25.4	36.7	23.1	22.4
Group care center	13.6	15.6	19.7	5.3
Mother cares for child while working	7.3	2.0	3.9	14.0
Other arrangements[2]	1.1	1.8	1.9	–
Suburbs				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	28.2	19.9	23.3	42.1
By father	13.1	8.1	8.0	24.8
By other relative	8.6	4.7	9.5	10.9
By nonrelative	6.5	7.1	5.8	6.4
Care in another home	45.1	46.6	48.8	38.6
By relative	17.1	11.9	20.3	17.2
By nonrelative	28.0	34.7	28.5	21.4
Group care center	18.5	22.9	22.4	9.7
Mother cares for child while working	7.1	9.7	3.6	9.3
Other arrangements[2]	1.1	0.9	1.8	0.3
Nonmetropolitan Areas				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	26.4	20.5	18.1	34.1
By father	9.8	5.6	6.4	15.1
By other relative	10.3	4.1	5.6	13.9
By nonrelative	6.3	10.8	6.1	5.1
Care in another home	52.2	63.0	61.8	46.2
By relative	24.3	15.3	31.2	25.4
By nonrelative	27.9	47.7	30.6	20.8
Group care center	9.5	11.8	13.3	7.0
Mother cares for child while working	10.5	3.2	4.6	12.3
Other arrangements[2]	1.4	1.5	2.3	0.4

– Rounds to zero.

[1] Includes the relatively few wives (less than 3 percent) employed full time as farm workers.

[2] Includes child taking care of self.

Source: Table A-9.

the white-collar occupation groups are similar for the four broad "location of child care" categories (in the child's home, in another home, in group care centers, and maternal care while the mother is working). About 22 percent of young children were cared for in the child's home and 54 percent were cared for in another home. Another 18 percent were cared for in group care centers, and only 5 percent were cared for by their mothers while working. Women in professional and managerial occupations, however, tended to use nonrelatives to a greater extent than did clerical and sales workers when placing their children in someone else's home (40 and 28 percent, respectively).

Women in either blue-collar or service occupations tended to use more in-home care (38 percent) for the youngest child than did mothers in white-collar occupations (22 percent), but less care in someone else's home (43 and 54 percent, respectively). In addition, blue-collar/service workers utilized group care much less often than did white-collar workers but, in more instances, provided their own care while working.

The basic intergroup occupational differences previously examined in the aggregate generally persist regardless of the residence of the woman and her family. For example, although women in white-collar occupations used group care services more often than did women in blue-collar/service occupations in all three residential areas, the overall level of group care use was much higher in suburban areas than in nonmetropolitan areas (figure 6). This particular difference in usage level may be the result of the level of affluence (the ability to pay for such services) and the demand for services (suburban developments with many families with young children living in close proximity to each other). Residential areas, then, apparently do not affect major occupation group patterns but rather alter the level at which these differences occur.

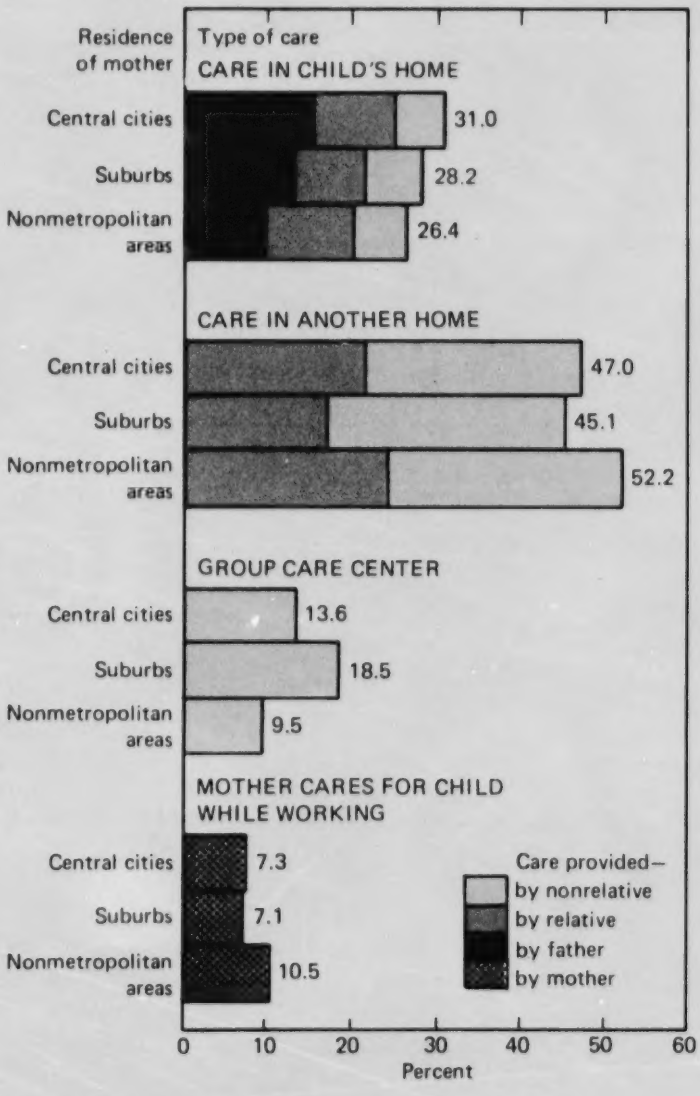
Use of group care services. As mentioned previously, children are placed in group care centers most frequently when the mother is a white-collar worker. Sharper differences occur when the use of group care facilities is analyzed by the occupations of husbands and wives. The data in table I indicate that in families where both the husband and wife are white-collar workers between 22 and 24 percent used group care facilities for their youngest child while the mother was at work. However, where both parents were either blue-collar or service workers, this arrangement was used in only 7 percent of the cases. It is apparent that the incomes and occupations of parents significantly influence the type of child care their children receive.

Parental child care responsibilities. Parents were an important source of care for young children of full-time working wives in 1977 (table H). Care provided for the youngest child under 5 years old by either parent while the mother worked totaled 21 percent; care by the father was slightly more prevalent (12 percent) than care provided by the mother (9 percent). In instances where both husband and wife were blue-collar or service workers (table J), care was provided by the father more often (17 percent) than in instances where both husband and wife were in professional or managerial occupations (4 percent).

FIGURE 6.

Type of Child Care Used for Youngest Child, by Residence of Mothers Working Full Time: June 1977

(Children under 5 years old of women married, husband present)



Source: Table A-9.

Table I. Percentage of Full-Time Working Wives Using Group Care Centers for the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife and Husband: June 1977

Occupation of wife	All husbands	Occupation of civilian husband			
		Professional-managerial	Clerical-sales	Blue-collar/service workers	Farm workers
All wives	13.8	20.6	16.9	11.3	2.2
Professional-managerial	16.5	21.7	(B)	11.2	(B)
Clerical-sales	19.1	24.3	22.8	16.3	(B)
Blue-collar/service workers	7.6	(B)	(B)	7.4	(B)
Farm workers	(B)	(B)	(B)	(B)	(B)

B Base too small to show derived measure.

Note: Percent may differ from those shown in other tables because of restriction of data to wives of civilian husbands.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey. Base for percentages are in table A-10.

Table J. Percentage of Full-Time Working Wives Whose Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old is Cared for by the Father, by Occupation of Wife and Husband: June 1977

Occupation of wife	All husbands	Occupation of civilian husband			
		Professional-managerial	Clerical-sales	Blue-collar/service workers	Farm workers
All wives	9.9	6.4	6.6	12.3	5.7
Professional-managerial	7.8	4.0	(B)	13.5	(B)
Clerical-sales	6.1	7.1	2.0	5.9	(B)
Blue-collar/service workers	16.0	(B)	(B)	17.2	(B)
Farm workers	(B)	(B)	(B)	(B)	(B)

B Base too small to show derived measure.

Note: Percents may differ from those shown in other tables because of restriction of data to wives of civilian husbands.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey. Bases for percentages are in table A-10.

The relatively extensive use of paternal child care by families where both husband and wife are blue-collar or service workers may partly result from increased opportunities for nighttime or shift work (e.g., assemblers in factories, janitorial workers). Such working schedules may more easily permit them to share child care duties than husbands and wives in white-collar occupations with similar working hours.[10]

[10] This hypothesis was suggested by Harriet Presser in a paper entitled "Working Women and Child Care," presented at the Research Conference on Women: A Developmental Perspective, November 20-21, 1980, sponsored by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development in cooperation with the National Institute of Mental Health and the National Institute of Aging.

Table K presents a multiple classification analysis of the percentage of wives whose husbands serve as the principal caretakers of their youngest child under 5 while they are working. Families with either the father or mother in a blue-collar or service occupation used the father as a caretaker most frequently. Paternal child care was also frequently reported in low-income families and in households

Table K. Multiple Classification Analysis of Use of Child's Father for the Care of the Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old of Full-Time Working Wives: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristics of wives	Number of wives[1]	Percent using father for care	
		Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total	1,705	11.4	(X)
Race			
White	1,449	11.5	11.9
Black	257	10.4	8.3
Household Composition			
Other adult female present	70	6.2	6.0
No other adult female present	1,635	11.6	11.6
Family Income			
Less than $6,000	134	18.5	18.1
$6,000 to $11,999	470	14.9	13.3
$12,000 to $19,999	685	10.1	10.0
$20,000 or more	416	7.1	9.3
Occupation of Woman			
Professional-managerial	328	6.8	8.5
Clerical and sales workers	673	8.6	9.1
Blue-collar and service workers	658	17.3	15.9
Farm workers	47	–	1.0
Occupation of Husband			
Professional-managerial	412	7.3	9.5
Clerical and sales workers	163	8.8	9.5
Blue-collar and service workers	1,050	13.8	12.7
Farm workers	80	5.7	7.7

X Not applicable.
– Rounds to zero.
[1] Data refer to the weighted number of wives. Numbers of women and percents (unadjusted) may differ from those shown in other tables because of different universe restrictions. Wives of races other than White or Black, wives with no report on family income, and wives whose husbands were not civilians are omitted from this analysis.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

where no other adult female was present. The standardized percentages show some evidence that White married-couple families (12 percent) used the father as a caretaker more often than Black married-couple families (8 percent).

The data also show that 8.5 percent of married women look after their youngest child while working (table L). (This percentage excludes child care provided at the work site by someone other than the mother.) However, most women who do care for their children while working were working at home (6.2 percent) rather than away from home (2.3 percent). This was especially true for blue-collar/service workers whose jobs may have involved at-home work (e.g., sewing or dressmaking) or where the family may have operated their own business and lived on the premises (e.g., laundries, beauty parlors, restaurants).

Table L. Percentage of Full-Time Working Wives Caring for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old While Working: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation of wife	Number of wives	Percentage of care at workplace		
		Total	Outside the home	In the home
Total[1]	1,957	8.5	2.3	6.2
Professional-managerial	392	5.7	3.6	2.0
Clerical-sales	772	4.0	1.6	2.5
Blue-collar/service workers	742	12.0	2.0	10.0

[1] Total includes wives employed as farm workers.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

The complexities of shared child care duties between mother and father have considerable policy implications for future employer-employee relations. If dual child care responsibility is desired by the parents of young children, employers can anticipate increasing demands by workers for greater flexibility in the work schedule. While split shifts have been customarily used in blue-collar jobs, white-collar workers are only recently experimenting with "flexi-time" programs and 4-day workweeks which enable working parents to share child care responsibilities more easily.

CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS AND ACTIVITIES OF NONWORKING MOTHERS

A small percentage of nonworking women with children under 5 years old also made regular child care arrangements. Data from the June 1977 CPS indicate that about 8 percent of these women made some type of arrangement for their youngest child under 5 years old; about 11 percent of women who had two or more children under 5 also made some type of regular child care arrangements for the second child (table M). The table also shows that the proportion of nonworking mothers using some regular child care arrangements increases as family income rises.

Table M. Percentage of Nonworking Women With Children Under 5 Years Old With Regular Child Care Arrangements: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Family income	Youngest child		Second youngest child	
	Number of women	Percent	Number of women	Percent
Total[1]	6,746	8.3	1,920	11.0
Less than $6,000	1,450	7.8	429	5.7
$6,000 to $11,999	1,954	6.0	589	6.9
$12,000 to $19,999	2,228	7.5	621	12.6
$20,000 or more	1,115	14.8	282	24.0

[1] Total excludes women for whom family income was not reported.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

The way women use their time while their children are cared for is indicated in table N. Overall, 60 percent of nonworking women who regularly arranged child care for any child under age 5 engaged in some scheduled activity; 23 percent regularly attended school or were in a training program and 9 percent were actively searching for work. (Women in lower income groups recorded these types of activities more frequently than did women in higher income families, probably because these activities could increase the earning potential of these women.) Another 10 percent were involved in volunteer work and 19 percent engaged in recreational activities.

Table N. Regular Activities of Nonworking Women During the Time They Use Child Care Arrangements for Any Child Under 5 Years Old: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Activities of women	Total	Family income			
		Less than $6,000	$6,000 to $11,999	$12,000 to $19,000	$20,000 or more
Number of women with regular child care arrangements	676	122	133	220	201
Percent of women:					
Going to school or in training programs	22.8	45.9	20.3	21.9	11.5
Looking for work	8.5	13.7	16.1	3.1	6.1
Doing volunteer work	9.9	2.9	7.7	9.2	16.4
In recreational activities	18.6	4.2	9.0	20.1	32.0
In other activities	14.9	10.8	19.1	13.7	15.8
With no regular activities	40.1	28.3	42.5	46.8	38.3

NOTE: Percents total to more than 100.0 because of multiple answers.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Among women in families with incomes exceeding $20,000, volunteer work (16 percent) and recreational activities (32 percent) were most frequently mentioned. Job search was a response for only 6 percent of these women, compared with 14 percent reported by women with family incomes under $6,000.

WORKING WOMEN IN OTHER INDUSTRIALIZED COUNTRIES

To broaden the perspective of current developments in the United States concerning the growing demand for child care services by working women, the focus is now turned to other industrialized nations to examine how families face this issue. Despite the absence of comparable data sets, an analysis emphasizing the varying social, demographic, and economic circumstances under which child care is provided by working parents in other countries should enhance the reader's understanding of the issues.

European labor force statistics show that women there are also marketing their skills on an unprecedented scale. The trend toward greater female participation in the labor force began in many European countries during and immediately following World War II in response to the loss of male workers and the need for reconstruction. By the mid 1970's, women were a major labor force component in virtually all industrialized counties. As shown in table A-11 and figure 7, labor force participation rates for women 25 to 54 years old—the principal ages of childbearing and childrearing[11]—have increased substantially since 1960 to rates well above the 50-percent level for many industrialized nations in 1975; the Scandanavian countries had a very high rate of about 70 percent. In contrast, the rate for the United States in 1975 was 55 percent.

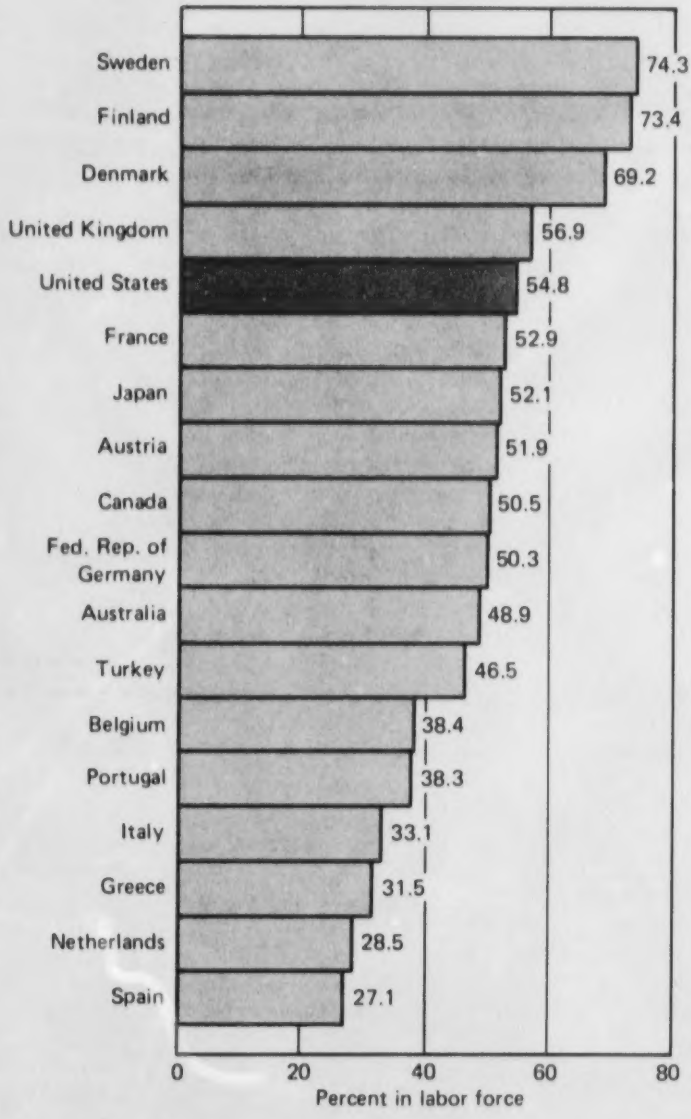
An additional factor that has contributed to the rise in female labor force participation in Europe and in the United States stems from the continuing increase in families maintained by women. This change in family structure underscores the likelihood of children growing up in families with a working mother and suggests also a corresponding increase in the demand for child care services in the coming decade.[12] Relative gains in labor force participation, similar to those in the United States, have been made in recent years by Swedish women with pre-school-age children. The availability of out-of-home care in Sweden for young children of working parents has also grown considerably.

In all countries, social attitudes toward the young child's need for maternal care affect the levels of labor force participation for women, and consequently affect the expansion of out-of-home child care services and the amount of government support for programs to serve working mothers. In examining changes in labor force participation in Europe and the United States, it should be emphasized that these changes correspond to the demand for labor created by the rapid expansion of the services sector of the economy and the corresponding growth in employment opportunities. The influx of women into the labor force

[11] The mean age of childbearing for women in Europe is typically between 27 and 28 years, compared with 26 years in the United States. See *Population Index*, Volume 46, No. 2 (1980), pp. 354-259.

[12] Sheila B. Kamerman and Alfred J. Kahn, *Child Care, Family Benefits, and Working Parents: A Study in Comparative Policy* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1981).

FIGURE 7.
Labor Force Participation Rates of Females 25 to 54 Years Old, for Selected Countries: 1975



Source: Table A-10.

has been absorbed primarily by this sector because of a preponderance of jobs requiring skills traditionally ascribed to women and a wage structure favoring their hiring.

In a study of changes in the labor market in European countries between 1965 and 1975, employment in the services sector grew at a rate of 1.1 percent per annum, compared with annual increases in the industrial sector of only 0.2 percent and annual decreases in the agricultural sector of 0.5 percent. Since the continued expansion of the services sector is anticipated, with nearly 50 percent of its jobs filled by female employees, the demand for female workers should continue. This will create greater demands by women for child care services and related equal employment opportunities.[13]

The decline in childbearing in recent decades is one of the factors affecting the availability of female labor. It is apparent that as fertility declines and the years between the first and last birth decrease, a woman has the potential to spend a greater portion of her life in the labor force. As is indicated in table A-11, the sharp increase in female labor force participation recorded since the 1960's has coincided with declines in childbearing for most economically developed countries. It is likely that in the future, the labor market may become more responsive to the entry and reentry of female workers corresponding to their childbearing decisions.

In addition to the aforementioned social, demographic, and economic forces, European social insittutions have had a considerable impact on shaping child care policy as well as family and labor policy. Many western countries have an impressive history of developing social service systems and a tradition of acknowledging that children are a major societal resource. Therefore, it is important to consider that child care policy in these countries may play a significant role in effecting major alterations in both male and female sex roles and serve as an important element in resolving the existing conflicts between family life and work.[14]

The remainder of this report examines the relationship between government policies concerning child care programs and the labor force behavior of women in Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany.

Child Care in Sweden

Demographic overview. Among western nations, Sweden has one of the most extensive social welfare systems, offering protection from "the cradle to the grave" to its current population of over 8 million persons. These benefits, including free maternity and child health services, day care centers, and child and housing allowances, reflect a choice by the people to allocate a high proportion of their resources to social services. A legal basis has been established in Sweden to eradicate all distinctions between children of married parents and those of

[13] Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Equal Opportunities for Women* (Paris: OECCD, 1979), pp. 26-33.

[14] C. Alison McIntosh, "Low Fertility and Liberal Democracy in Western Europe," *Population and Development Review*, Vol. 7, No. 2 (June 1981), pp. 181-207.

unmarried parents; both children and parents are entitled to all benefits, and children have the right to maintenance and inheritance from both parents and may adopt the surname of either parent.[15]

During the 1960's, government policy efforts in Sweden focused on facilitating female labor force entry and, to some extent, easing the child care responsibility of women in the labor force. Policy efforts during the 1970's shifted from labor force recruitment to the establishment of occupational and economic equality between the sexes.[16] Social policy at this time was influenced by the influx of women with pre-school-age children into the labor force, so a greatly expanded system of day care facilities evolved to make it easier for parents to combine work and family roles.

To compensate for labor shortages following World War II, Sweden actively sought foreign immigrants to supplement their labor force.[17] Even after economic recovery had been accomplished, immigrants continued to play a vital role in the Swedish economy as well as an important one in population growth. By 1979, immigration and natural increase among immigrants had accounted for all of Sweden's annual growth rate of 0.2 percent and for about one-half of the annual growth rate from 1944 to the mid-1970's.[18]

In the mid-1960's, Sweden began to use a major untapped reserve of domestic labor—the female population of working age. As restrictive immigration policies in the 1970's slowed the flow of foreign laborers into Sweden, women, especially those with pre-school-age children, began to enter the labor market. Legislation passed in 1975 authorized the expansion of pre-school child care programs and recommended shorter working hours for parents with young children.

Data for 1975 indicate that 43 percent of the 4.1 million people in the Swedish labor force were women, up from 37 percent a decade earlier. Between 1965 and 1975, the labor force participation rate for married women increased from 44 to 59 percent, while the rate for unmarried women increased only slightly from 57 to 59 percent (table 0). (The comparable rate for married women in the United States in 1975 was 44 percent, some 15 percentage points lower than that recorded by Swedish wives.)

Furthermore, the labor force participation rate for all Swedish women with children under 7 years old increased sharply from 37 percent in 1965 to 61 percent in 1975.[19] (In 1975, ever-married American women who had children under 6 years of age had a labor force participation rate of only 39 percent.) The labor force participation rates for Swedish women have been about 10 years ahead of those for American women. (See table A-1 for rates for the United States.)

The analysis of the child care needs of Swedish working women requires an understanding of the composition of the contemporary Swedish family. In 1978,

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[15] Murray Gendell, "Sweden Faces Zero Population Growth," *Population Bulletin*, Vol. 35, No. 2 (June 1980), pp. 4-5.

[16] Chistina Jonung, "Sexual Equality in the Swedish Labor Market," *Monthly Labor Review* (October 1978), page 33.

[17] Ayse Kudat and Mine Sabuncuoglu, "The Changing Composition of Europe's Guest-worker Population," *Monthly Labor Review* (October 1980), page 10.

[18] Gendell, *op. cit.*, page 5.

[19] Compulsory schooling begins at age 7 in Sweden.

Table O. Labor Force Participation Rates of Women 16 to 74 Years Old in Sweden: 1965-75

Marital status and age of children	1975	1970	1965
All women	59.2	52.8	48.7
Married women	59.3	51.5	44.0
Unmarried women	59.1	55.1	57.4
Women with children:			
Under 17 years old	69.0	57.6	46.6
7 to 16 years old	78.4	68.1	57.8
Under 7 years old	60.6	49.7	36.8

Source: Sveriges officiella statistik, *Statistiska Meddelanden*, Arbetskraftsundersokningarna 1963-1975 (October, 1978), table 2.

36 percent of all births in Sweden were out of wedlock, compared with 16 percent in the United States. In addition, 15 percent of all Swedish women living with a man in 1978 were unmarried (as reported by the Swedish National Central Bureau of Statistics), while the rate for the United States in 1978 was only about 2 percent.[20] The combination of high levels of out-of-wedlock childbearing and unmarried persons living together in Sweden may indicate a limited availability of familial support systems for child care.

Child care policy and benefits. Child care policy in Sweden has been shaped by collective social responsibility for the care and development of children and a labor policy geared toward providing women with an opportunity to work. Recent government efforts have largely concentrated on the expansion of existing child care facilities and on altering the sexual division of labor in the home so that fathers can assume greater child care responsibilities.

Within this framework, the Parental Insurance Scheme, which became effective in 1974, was introduced to encourage men to participate more in child care activities; maternity leave was augmented to include paternity leave from employment, thereby providing either parent with up to 9 months leave without jeopardizing their job security or pension/retirement benefits. The insurance scheme also entitles parents to receive compensation of up to 90 percent of their salary for a period of up to 9 months after the birth of the child. Parents may also take up to 60 days paid leave in order to remain at home to care for a sick child.[21]

Legislation enacted in 1979 additionally provides for unpaid but job-protected leave from work for either parent until the child reaches 18 months of age and entitles either parent to a 6-hour workday with income supplements until the child's eighth birthday. In 1948, Sweden introduced family allowances for childrearing expenses in addition to tax deductions which were already in effect

[20] Gendell, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-17.
[21] Lillemore Melsted, "Swedish Family Policy," *Election Year '79*, No. 6 (New York Swedish Information Service, 1979), pp. 1-2.

for dependents. Currently, families receive benefits of as much as $700 per year for each child under 16 years old.[22]

Types of care and facilities. As outlined in the preceding paragraphs, public policy and financial aid in Sweden clearly support parental care for children under 1 year old. Efforts over the past decade have centered on expanding day care facilities for 3-to-6-year-olds and placing 6-year-olds in kindergarten. In 1980, there were well over 100,000 places in day care centers, in contrast to only 10,000 in 1965. This occurred in a country which had not had a long tradition of preschool education.

The principal types of child care arrangements for pre-school-age children in Sweden fall under either private or municipal services. Private services consist mainly of parental child care or the "childminder" who looks after the child; the childminder may be a relative, private employee, or municipal employee. Municipal care facilities are usually for children 3 to 6 years old and consist of day nurseries with education programs and family day care centers with group care by a childminder.

Data on child care arrangements for children under 7 years of age are shown in table P and are based on a survey conducted by the Swedish Central Statistical Bureau in 1980. The table shows the type of arrangements used for all children under 7 years old and for children whose guardian was either in school or working at least 16 hours per week. Since neither the sex nor the specific activity status of

Table P. Child Care Arrangements for Children Under 7 Years Old: Sweden, 1980

Type of child care arrangements	All children	Children with a working[1] or studying guardian
Number of children	713,693	412,467
Percent		
Total	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home	61.0	40.8
By guardian	43.4	13.4
By childminders	17.6	27.4
Other private arrangement	6.2	8.4
Nursery school (private)	3.1	2.3
Municipal child care	29.5	48.5
Day nursery	16.7	27.3
Family day care centers	12.5	20.7
Other type of municipal care	0.3	0.4
No information given	0.2	–

– Rounds to zero.

[1] Includes only guardians working at least 16 hours per week.

Source: Sveriges Officiella Statistik, *Statistiska Meddelanden*, Barnomsorgsundersokningen 1980, part 2, table 4.

[22] For a general discussion of child care policies and programs in Sweden, see Kamerman and Kahn, *op. cit.*

the guardian was published in the study, a comparative analysis of child care arrangements used by *working mothers* is not feasible. The data indicate that 30 percent of all pre-school-age children in Sweden are receiving some type of municipal child care service. (In all probability, this proportion would be even greater if an analysis could be made by sex and activity status of the guardian.) As previously shown, 13 percent of pre-school-age children of working women in the United States in 1977 were cared for in some type of group care center while their mothers were at work.

Child Care in the Federal Republic of Germany

Demographic overview. In contrast to Sweden, the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) has not pursued a vigorous policy of encouraging women to enter the labor force. Beginning in the early 1960's when workers from the German Democratic Republic were prohibited from migrating to the FRG, the ensuing labor shortages were reduced by the recruitment of other migrant workers rather than the utilization of the domestic female labor reserves. (The female labor force participation rate in the FRG has been comparatively low considering the very low fertility of German women (table A-11); usually countries with low fertility are characterized by having a large percentage of childbearing-aged women in the labor force.) In 1979, the foreign population of the FRG numbered 4 million out of a total of some 61 million.[23]

To better understand labor force and child care policies in the FRG, recent demographic developments should be considered. Because of below replacement-level fertility and a declining population, the FRG government has not encouraged female labor force participation. Prior to 1977, wives were permitted to work outside the home only insofar as this role would be compatible with their marital and family obligations.[24] Although new legislation took effect in July 1977 to reform marriage and family rights and promote greater equality between the sexes, male resistance to these reforms have hindered women in realizing these rights. As recently as August 1979, the *Third Family Report* stressed the government's committment to improve social conditions in order to motivate increased fertility based on the premise that "the life of a woman can be fulfilled in a special way only by having a child."[25]

Sharp declines in fertility in the FRG, which began in the 1960's, culminated in a demographic crisis in the 1970's; between 1966 and 1978, the number of births to native German women had fallen by about one-half. The decline, however, was offset to some extent by the fertility of the foreign population; the proportion of all births to foreign-born women increased from 4 percent in 1966 to 17 percent in 1974, and decreased to 13 percent in 1978. (See table Q.)

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[23] Ayse Kudat and Mine Sabucuoglu, *op. cit.*

[24] Bundesministerium fuer Jugend, Familie und Gesundheit, *Hilfen fuer die Familie.* Reihe: Buerger-Service Band II (Bonn: 1980), page 10.

[25] Sachverstaendigenkommission der Bundesregierung, "Die Lage der Familien in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland," *Dritter Familienbericht.* Zusammenfassender Bericht. (Bonn: 1979), page 44.

Table Q. Live Births in the Federal Republic of Germany, by Nativity of the Mother: 1966-78

Year	Total births	Native births	Foreign population	
			Births	Percent of total births
1978	576,468	501,475	74,993	13.0
1976	602,851	515,898	86,953	14.4
1974	626,373	518,103	108,270	17.3
1972	701,214	609,773	91,441	13.0
1970	810,808	747,801	63,007	7.8
1968	969,825	924,877	44,948	4.6
1966	1,050,345	1,005,199	45,146	4.3

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt, *Statistisches Jahrbuch 1980 fuer die Bundesrepublik Deutschland* (Wiesbaden: 1980), page 71.

The impact of fewer births coupled with a substantial outmigration of foreign laborers in 1973 resulted in a decline in population beginning in 1974; the average annual growth rate for the FRG for the 1975-79 period has been estimated to be -0.2 percent, compared with +0.3 percent for Sweden and +0.8 percent for the United States during the same period.[26]

Labor force trends. Despite the continuing support of "traditional" roles for females, there were almost 9.7 million economically active women 15 to 64 years old in the FRG in 1979, representing 47 percent of all women in this age group (table R). Married women increased their labor force rates from 40 percent in 1970 to 43 percent in 1979, while the activity rates of unmarried women in this same period declined from 59 to 55 percent.

Table R. Economic Activity Rates for Women 15 to 64 Years Old in the Federal Republic of Germany: 1971-79

Marital status and age of children	1979	1975	1971
All women	47.4	46.4	45.6
Married women	43.3	42.2	39.5
Unmarried women	55.3	55.3	58.6
Women with children:			
Under 18 years old	42.3	40.8	37.3
6 to 17 years old	46.1	45.0	41.8
Under 6 years old	34.7	34.0	31.6

Note: Economically active women approximate those women who are working and exclude those who are not employed or who are not in the labor force.

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt, *Statistisches Jahrbuch fuer die Bundersrepublik Deutschland* (Wiesbaden), various annual issues.

[26] U.S. Bureau of the Census, *World Population 1979* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980).

Very little increase in the activity rates of women with children occurred during the 1970's. Most of the increase that did occur was among women with school-age children. This is in sharp contrast to the experience of women in the United States and in Sweden where the greatest relative increases in labor force participation occurred among women with pre-school-age children.

Child care policy and arrangements. Although there has been little deliberate effort to expand out-of-home child care services for very young children in the FRG, parenting has been encouraged by means of child and housing allowances and comprehensive health care services. A cash allowance is available to parents for children regardless of their legitimacy status or whether they are foster children or simply in a family's care. Payment schedules run from approximately $25 per month for women with one child to $50 per month for women with two children; beginning with the third child, additional monthly allowances of $100 are paid for each additional child. This entitlement is available until the child's 18th birthday but can be extended to a maximum age of 27 provided that the child is enrolled full time in an educational institution.[27]

In addition to the child allowance program, a cash benefit is paid upon the birth of each child. Paid maternity leave is provided by the government for 7½ months after the child's birth at a rate of $375 per month. This coverage is extended only to previously employed women to facilitate labor force reentry.[28] (See table S for a comparison of child care benefits in the United States, Sweden, and the FRG.)

The current household structure in the FRG suggests that in-home child care is now a less viable option than it was in the past. Only 2 percent[29] of households in the mid-1970's contained three generations (e.g., parents, children, and grandchildren); this, however, does not diminish the important role that relatives, particularly grandparents, play as childminders. A survey concerning child care arrangements used by working mothers was conducted in 1975 and consisted of approximately 1,600 economically active mothers whose youngest child was under 3 years old (table T). The results indicate that 18 percent of the mothers cared for their own children while they were at work and some 56 percent used relatives (usually grandparents) to care for their children (46 percent). Care by neighbors and other nonrelatives accounted for another 11 percent of the responses, while public and private day care center use was reported by 19 percent of the women.

Since public policy in the FRG is pronatalist and is not as active in providing organized care centers for children as in Sweden, it is not surprising that family members and relatives provided about three-fourths of the child care services used by working women with young children. Although programs to develop care centers for children under 3 years were organized in 1973, they were primarily a social experiment rather than a means of fulfilling the needs of working women.[30]

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[27] Bundesministerium fuer Jugend, Familie und Gesundheit, *op. cit.*, page 15.
[28] *Ibid.*, page 22.
[29] Statistisches Bundesamt, *Bevoelkerung und Erwerbstaetigkeit*, Fachserie 1, "Haushalte und Familien," Reihe 3 (Wiesbaden: 1977).
[30] Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, *op. cit.*, pp. 134-135.

Table S. Types of Child Care Benefits in the United States, Sweden, and the Federal Republic of Germany

Type of benefit	United States	Sweden	Federal Republic of Germany
CASH			
1. Income replacement . .	None	Paternity or maternity leave	Maternity leave
	None	Care for a sick child at home	Care for a sick child at home
2. Income substitution . .	Aid to families with dependent children	None	None
3. Income supplementation	None	Child and housing allowances	Child and housing allowances
	None	Child health services	Child health services
	Tax allowance for dependents	Tax allowance for dependents	None
	Child care tax credit	None	Child care tax credit
EMPLOYMENT			
1. Right to leave work and job security	None	Parental leave up to 9 months	Maternity leave up to 7½ months
	None	Unpaid leave up to 18 months	None
	None	6 hour work day up to child's 8th birthday	None

Source: Adapted from Sheila B. Kamerman, "Child Care and Family Benefits: Policies of Six Industrialized Countries," Monthly Labor Review (November 1980), table 4.

Table T. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangements Used by Working Mothers With Children Under 3 Years Old: Federal Republic of Germany, 1975

Type of child care arrangement	Percent
Family arrangements	74
Grandparents	46
Mother	18
Older sibling	3
Other relative	7
Private arrangements	17
Nonrelative in child's home	7
Day care center/mother	5
Neighbor/friend	4
Full care center	1
Public arrangements	15
Kindergarten/care center	13
Other arrangements	2

Note: Percents total to more than 100.0 because of multiple answers.

Source: Bundesministerium fuer Jugend, Familie und Gesundheit, *Erziehungsgeld Repraesentativ-Erhebung* (Munchen, 1975).

PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

The social changes which have taken place in the United States and in other industrialized countries in the past few decades have had a profound effect on two of society's most fundamental institutions: the family and the labor force. In view of the tremendous influx of women into the labor force, it seems that the separation of women's roles in two shperes can no longer be maintained and that the integration of work and family life will be basic to social reorganization in the future.[31] An important issue that many countries may face will be how families care for their children when both parents are working.

While some women have been prompted to work for individual fulfillment or an improved material standard of living, many more women are becoming the chief financial supporters of their families or start working to maintain real family income levels.[32]

Simultaneously, demographic and technological changes which have had an impact on lessening the domestic workload associated with household and family maintenance have also facilitated female entry into the labor force. Social changes, including the postponement of marriage, improved family planning, and the achievement of higher educational levels for women, have tended to promote smaller household sizes. Technological developments have also played a crucial role in creating new jobs and, to some extent, transforming some typical male occupations into the range of female physical capability.

Since there is no evidence of any reversal in the current trend of increasing labor force participation of women and since this rate has yet to reach its projected peak in many countries,[33] the way parents carry out their responsibilities to their children under the growing expectation that most adults will participate in the work force will no doubt be one of the most crucial social issues of the next decade. In fact, projections for the United States to the year 1990 indicate that there will be about 10.5 million children under 6 years old whose mothers are in the labor force,[34] up from an estimated 7.5 million in 1980.

As long as women continue to carry the main responsibility for the care and upbringing of children and must make some arrangement for them while at work, the child care policy that governments and employers adopt will be influential in resolving the dichotomy between family life and work. How effectively child care policies facilitate female labor force entry and shared parental responsibility for child care will depend upon a variety of considerations ranging from the requirements of changing economies to the adaptability of diverse social attitudes about the family, work, and childrearing responsibilities.

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[31] Kamerman and Kahn, *op. cit.*

[32] Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, *op. cit.*, page 26.

[33] Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Demographic Trends 1950-1990* (Paris: OECD, 1979).

[34] Ralph Smith, *Women in the Labor Force in 1990.* (Washington, D.C.: The Urban Institute, 1979).

Appendix A. Basic Data Tables

Table A-1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Ever-Married Women, by Age of Youngest Child: March 1950-80

(Numbers in thousands. Refers to civilian noninstitutional population)

Marital status and survey year	Total	No children under 18 years	With children under 18 years				
			Total	Youngest 6 to 17 years	With children under 6 years		
					Total	Youngest 3 to 5 years	Youngest under 3 years
NUMBER							
Ever-Married							
1980	68,209	38,344	29,866	16,994	12,871	5,088	7,784
1975	64,562	34,738	29,820	15,970	13,850	6,149	7,701
1970	60,120	31,266	28,854	14,692	14,162	5,818	8,344
1965	56,084	28,399	27,685	13,119	14,566	5,289	9,277
1960	52,355	25,952	26,403	12,037	14,366	4,848	9,518
1955[1]	49,288	25,178	24,111	10,547	13,564	(NA)	(NA)
1950	45,509	24,051	21,459	8,930	12,529	(NA)	(NA)
Married, Husband Present							
1980	48,717	23,918	24,799	13,556	11,243	4,200	7,044
1975	47,547	22,113	25,432	13,317	12,115	5,210	6,905
1970	45,055	19,366	25,689	12,792	12,897	5,228	7,669
1965	42,367	17,650	24,717	11,333	13,384	4,792	8,592
1960	40,205	16,426	23,779	10,477	13,302	4,438	8,864
1955[1]	37,570	15,968	21,602	9,183	12,419	(NA)	(NA)
1950	35,925	16,329	19,597	7,798	11,799	(NA)	(NA)
Other, Ever-Married[3]							
1980	19,492	14,426	5,067	3,438	1,628	888	740
1975	17,015	12,625	4,388	2,653	1,735	939	796
1970	15,065	11,900	3,165	1,900	1,265	590	675
1965	13,717	10,749	2,968	1,786	1,182	497	685
1960	12,150	9,526	2,624	1,560	1,064	410	654
1955[1]	11,718	9,210	2,509	1,364	1,145	(NA)	(NA)
1950	9,584	7,722	1,862	1,132	730	(NA)	(NA)

See footnotes at end of table.

Table A-1. Labor Force Participation Rates for Ever-Married Women, by Age of Youngest Child: March 1950-80—Continued

(Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the labor force)

Marital status and survey year	Total	No children under 18 years	With children under 18 years				
			Total	Youngest 6 to 17 years	With children under 6 years		
					Total	Youngest 3 to 5 years	Youngest under 3 years
PERCENT							
Ever-Married							
1980	48.4	42.0	56.7	64.3	46.7	54.5	41.7
1975	43.4	40.0	47.4	54.8	38.9	44.5	34.4
1970	40.4	38.8	42.0	51.5	32.2	39.2	27.3
1965	35.7	36.5	35.0	45.7	25.3	32.1	21.4
1960	32.7	35.0	30.4	42.5	20.2	27.4	16.5
1955[1]	30.6	33.9	27.1	38.4	18.2	(NA)	(NA)
1950	26.8	31.4	21.6	32.8	13.6	(NA)	(NA)
Married, Husband Present							
1980	50.2	46.1	54.1	61.8	44.9	51.4	41.1
1975	44.4	43.9	44.9	52.3	36.6	41.9	32.7
1970	40.8	42.2	39.7	49.2	30.3	37.0	25.8
1965	34.7	38.3	32.2	42.7	23.3	29.2	20.0
1960	30.5	34.7	27.6	39.0	18.6	25.1	15.3
1955[1]	27.7	32.7	24.0	34.7	16.2	(NA)	(NA)
1950	23.8	30.3	18.4	28.3	11.9	(NA)	(NA)
Other, Ever-Married[2]							
1980	44.1	35.2	69.4	74.3	59.2	69.0	47.3
1975	40.7	33.2	62.4	67.2	55.0	59.4	51.1
1970	39.1	33.4	60.6	67.3	50.7	58.8	43.6
1965	38.9	33.5	58.3	65.2	47.8	59.4	39.4
1960	40.0	35.7	55.5	66.2	39.8	51.7	32.4
1955[1]	39.6	36.0	52.9	63.4	40.4	(NA)	(NA)
1950	37.8	33.7	54.9	63.6	41.4	(NA)	(NA)

NA Not available.

[1] Data are for April.

[2] Includes married, husband absent (including separated), divorced, and widowed women.

NOTE: Data for 1950 through 1965 refer to women 14 years old and over; data for 1970 through 1980 are for women 16 years old and over.

Source: Data for 1980 are from Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Marital and Family Characteristics of Workers, March 1980*, USDL 80-767. Data for 1960 through 1975 are from Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Special Labor Force Reports*, Nos. 13, 64, 130, and 183. Data for 1950 and 1955 are from U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-50, Nos. 29 and 62.

Table A-2. Labor Force Status of Women 18 to 44 Years Old With a Child Under 5 Years Old, by Age of Youngest Child: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Marital and labor force status	Total	Age of youngest child				
		Less than 1 year old	1 year old	2 years old	3 years old	4 years old
All Marital Statuses						
Number	[1]11,593	2,903	2,412	2,128	1,914	1,779
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In labor force	40.6	31.9	37.2	44.4	44.0	50.1
Employed	35.0	24.0	31.0	39.7	39.2	45.7
Full time	23.2	15.9	19.6	26.6	26.2	31.8
Part time	11.8	9.1	11.4	13.1	13.1	13.8
Unemployed	5.6	7.0	6.2	4.7	4.8	4.4
Unemployment rate	13.7	21.8	16.6	10.7	10.9	8.8
Not in labor force	59.4	68.1	62.8	55.6	56.0	49.9
Married, Husband Present						
Number	[1]9,648	2,492	2,049	1,780	1,557	1,437
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In labor force	38.9	30.7	36.3	43.7	41.4	47.5
Employed	34.5	25.0	31.4	39.8	37.8	44.3
Full time	21.8	15.3	19.2	25.7	23.7	29.2
Part time	12.7	9.7	12.2	14.0	14.0	15.1
Unemployed	4.4	5.7	4.9	3.9	3.6	3.2
Unemployment rate	11.3	18.7	13.4	8.9	8.7	6.6
Not in labor force	61.1	69.3	63.7	56.3	58.6	52.5
All Other Marital Statuses[2]						
Number	[1]1,945	411	363	348	357	341
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In labor force	49.0	39.6	42.4	48.2	55.8	60.9
Employed	37.7	25.2	28.9	39.2	45.9	51.3
Full time	30.2	19.6	22.3	31.1	37.0	43.0
Part time	7.4	5.6	6.6	8.0	8.9	8.3
Unemployed	11.3	14.4	13.5	9.0	9.9	9.6
Unemployment rate	23.1	36.2	31.8	18.6	17.6	15.9
Not in labor force	51.0	60.4	57.6	51.8	44.2	39.1

[1] Includes women with a child under 5 years old but with no report on exact age.

[2] Includes married, husband absent (including separated), widowed, divorced, and never-married women.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-3. Percent Distribution of Children Under 6 Years Old of Working Women, by Type of Child Care Arrangement, Age of Children, and Employment Status of Mother: June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977

(Numbers in thousands. Data are for children of ever-married women)

Type of child care arrangement and employment status of mother	1977[1]			1965			1958		
	Total under 5 years	Under 3 years	3 and 4 years	Total under 6 years	Under 3 years	3 to 5 years	Total under 6 years	Under 3 years	3 to 5 years
Employed Full Time									
Number of children	2,669	1,394	1,117	2,561	1,024	1,537	2,039	883	1,157
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[2]	28.6	29.9	26.4	47.2	46.0	48.1	56.6	(NA)	(NA)
By father	10.6	10.8	10.1	10.3	9.5	10.8	14.7	(NA)	(NA)
By other relative	11.4	12.6	10.0	18.4	18.6	18.3	27.7	(NA)	(NA)
By nonrelative	6.6	6.4	6.3	18.5	17.8	19.0	14.2	(NA)	(NA)
Care in another home	47.4	53.4	41.7	37.3	41.7	34.3	27.1	(NA)	(NA)
By relative	20.8	22.1	19.7	17.6	22.0	14.8	14.5	(NA)	(NA)
By nonrelative	26.6	31.3	22.0	19.6	19.8	19.5	12.7	(NA)	(NA)
Group care center[3]	14.6	9.1	21.2	8.2	4.8	10.5	4.5	(NA)	(NA)
Child cares for self	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6	(NA)	(NA)
Mother cares for child while working[4]	8.2	6.8	10.1	6.7	6.4	6.9	11.2	(NA)	(NA)
Other arrangements	0.8	0.8	0.4	0.4	1.0	–		(NA)	(NA)
Employed Part Time									
Number of children	1,458	805	611	1,233	470	763	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[2]	42.7	42.5	43.2	47.0	45.2	48.1	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
By father	23.1	21.5	25.2	22.9	20.2	24.5	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
By other relative	11.2	12.2	10.6	15.6	16.2	15.1	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
By nonrelative	8.4	8.8	7.4	8.6	8.8	8.6	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)

Care in another home	28.8	32.2	24.7	17.0	19.7	15.4	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
By relative	13.2	15.5	10.1	9.1	9.4	8.9	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
By nonrelative	15.6	16.6	14.6	7.9	10.3	6.5	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Group care center[3]	9.1	5.5	14.2	2.7	0.9	3.9	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Child cares for self	0.5	–	0.2	0.9	0.9	1.0	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Mother cares for child while working[4]	18.5	19.9	16.9	32.3	33.3	31.6	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
Other arrangements	0.4	–	0.8	–	–	–	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)

NA Not available.
– Rounds to zero.
[1] Data are only for two youngest children under 5 years old. Total includes children for whose age is not known.
[2] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.
[3] Data are for all types of group care.
[4] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.

Source: See source notes in appendix C for CPS data.

Table A-4. Percent Distribution of Children Under 6 Years Old, by Type of Child Care Arrangement, Employment Status, and Race of Mother: February 1965 and June 1977

(Numbers in thousands. Data are for children of ever-married women)

Year and type of child care arrangement	White			Black and other races		
	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time
1977[1]						
Number of children	3,471	2,154	1,318	656	515	140
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[2]	34.5	28.8	43.8	28.7	27.7	31.4
By father	15.8	10.8	24.1	10.7	9.9	13.6
By other relative	10.7	10.8	10.7	14.5	13.9	15.7
By nonrelative	7.9	7.2	9.0	3.5	3.9	2.1
Care in another home	39.1	46.2	27.4	50.3	52.2	42.9
By relative	15.8	18.4	11.4	30.8	30.6	30.7
By nonrelative	23.3	27.8	16.0	19.5	21.7	12.1
Group care center[3]	12.2	14.3	8.6	15.2	15.7	13.6
Child cares for self	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.4	2.9
Mother cares for child while working[4]	13.2	9.4	19.6	4.6	3.7	7.9
Other arrangements	0.7	0.9	0.3	0.5	0.4	1.4
1965						
Number of children	3,065	2,067	998	730	506	224
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[2]	48.0	49.1	45.7	43.7	39.6	53.0
By father	15.7	10.7	25.9	8.6	8.5	9.1
By other relative	15.0	17.2	10.4	27.9	23.2	38.4
By nonrelative	17.3	21.2	9.3	7.1	7.9	5.5
Care in another home	28.3	35.7	13.0	41.1	43.6	35.2
By relative	12.8	16.4	5.5	23.6	22.8	25.1
By nonrelative	15.5	19.3	7.5	17.5	20.8	10.1
Group care center[3]	6.4	8.2	2.7	6.6	8.3	2.7
Child cares for self	0.6	0.4	1.1	–	–	–
Mother cares for child while working[4]	16.4	6.2	37.5	8.6	8.5	9.1
Other arrangements	0.3	0.5	–	–	–	–

– Rounds to zero.

[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

[2] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.

[3] Data are for all types of group care.

[4] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.

Source: See source notes in appendix C for CPS data.

Table A-5. Percent Distribution of Children Under 6 Years Old of All Working Women, by Type of Child Care Arrangement and Years of School Completed by Mother: February 1965 and June 1977

(Numbers in thousands. Data are for children of ever-married women)

Type of child care arrangement	1977[1]			1965		
	Less than high school	High school graduate	College, 1 year or more	Less than high school	High school graduate	College, 1 year or more
Number of children	757	1,974	1,397	1,132	1,753	742
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[2]	41.5	32.7	30.5	49.8	46.4	46.7
By father	15.9	15.3	14.3	14.1	14.6	14.9
By other relative	21.1	10.7	6.9	26.8	15.0	10.2
By nonrelative	4.5	6.7	9.4	8.9	16.8	21.6
Care in another home	39.2	42.5	39.4	30.4	31.9	24.1
By relative	22.9	21.0	11.5	17.0	13.6	11.3
By nonrelative	16.4	21.5	27.9	13.4	18.3	12.8
Group care center[3]	7.3	12.8	15.4	3.4	7.2	9.6
Child cares for self	0.3	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3
Mother cares for child while working[4]	11.4	11.2	13.1	16.0	13.8	19.3
Other arrangements	0.4	0.6	0.9	–	0.2	–

– Rounds to zero.

[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

[2] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.

[3] Data are for all types of group care.

[4] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.

Source: See source notes in appendix C for CPS data.

Table A-6. Percent Distribution of Children Under 6 Years Old of All Working Women, by Type of Child Care Arrangement and Family Income in Current Dollars: February 1965 and June 1977

(Numbers in thousands. Data are for children of ever-married women)

Type of child care arrangement	1977[1]				1965			
	Less than $6,000	$6,000 to $11,999	$12,000 to $19,999	$20,000 or more	Less than $3,000[2]	$3,000 to $5,999[3]	$6,000 to $9,999[4]	$10,000 or more[5]
Number of children	459	1,218	1,481	823	603	1,282	1,356	553
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[6]	34.6	34.0	34.2	30.7	44.0	38.1	54.8	50.6
By father	12.8	16.0	17.3	11.3	6.3	13.4	20.3	13.3
By other relative	15.2	12.6	10.0	9.7	29.4	14.6	15.5	12.0
By nonrelative	6.7	5.5	6.9	9.7	8.3	10.1	19.0	25.3
Care in another home	43.7	42.6	42.9	36.0	29.7	36.3	28.5	26.7
By relative	24.9	22.3	18.7	9.1	15.2	17.8	14.5	8.9
By nonrelative	18.8	20.3	24.2	26.9	14.5	18.5	14.0	17.8
Group care center[7]	8.7	11.6	10.3	18.4	3.8	6.9	5.2	9.9
Child cares for self	0.7	0.2	0.1	1.2	1.6	0.7	0.2	–
Mother cares for child while working[8]	11.5	11.3	11.7	12.6	20.8	17.7	10.6	12.9
Other arrangements	0.9	0.3	0.7	1.0	–	0.2	0.7	–

– Rounds to zero.

[1] Data are only for the two youngest children under 5 years old.

[2] In constant 1977 dollars, this category represents "under $5,762."

[3] In constant 1977 dollars, this category represents "$5,762 to $11,523."

[4] In constant 1977 dollars, this category represents "$11,524 to $19,205."

[5] In constant 1977 dollars, this category represents "$19,206 or more."

[6] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.

[7] Data are for all types of group care.

[8] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.

Source: See source notes in appendix C for CPS data.

Table A-7. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangement Used for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Race, Marital Status, and Employment Status of Mother: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and marital status of mother	All Races			White			Black		
	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time
All Marital Statuses									
Number of children	3,773	2,507	1,267	3,059	1,943	1,116	616	482	134
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	33.0	28.6	41.7	33.6	28.7	42.4	30.4	28.4	37.6
By father	13.9	9.8	22.0	15.1	10.2	23.7	7.9	7.8	8.5
By other relative	12.5	12.7	12.2	11.1	11.5	10.5	19.5	17.5	26.7
By nonrelative	6.6	6.1	7.5	7.4	7.0	8.2	3.0	3.1	2.4
Care in another home	41.8	47.8	30.0	40.5	47.2	28.6	48.3	49.9	42.6
By relative	18.8	21.2	14.1	16.4	18.9	12.0	31.2	30.9	32.3
By nonrelative	23.0	26.6	15.9	24.1	28.3	16.6	17.1	19.0	10.3
Group care center[3]	12.9	14.8	9.3	12.2	14.1	8.9	15.9	17.7	9.4
Mother cares for child while working[3]	11.2	7.5	18.3	12.6	8.6	19.5	4.4	3.4	7.8
Other arrangements[4]	1.1	1.3	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.5	1.1	0.7	2.6
Married, Husband Present									
Number of children	3,088	1,957	1,131	2,627	1,592	1,035	371	291	81
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	33.4	28.3	42.5	34.4	28.7	43.3	28.1	26.3	33.9
By father	16.9	12.4	24.7	17.6	12.4	25.6	12.3	11.7	14.1
By other relative	9.8	9.6	10.2	9.5	9.4	9.6	12.1	10.5	17.8
By nonrelative	6.7	6.3	7.6	7.3	6.9	8.1	3.7	4.1	2.0
Care in another home	41.3	48.5	29.0	39.6	47.3	27.9	52.1	54.0	45.4
By relative	18.3	21.2	13.3	16.1	18.9	11.9	34.3	34.5	33.8
By nonrelative	23.0	27.3	15.7	23.5	28.4	16.0	17.8	19.5	11.6

Table A-7. Percent Distribution of Type of Child Care Arrangement Used for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Race, Marital Status, and Employment Status of Mother: June 1977—Continued

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and marital status of mother	All Races			White			Black		
	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time	Total employed	Employed full time	Employed part time
Married, Husband Present									
Group care center[2]	11.6	13.6	8.1	11.0	13.1	7.7	15.0	15.9	11.6
Mother cares for child while working[3]	12.6	8.5	19.8	13.9	9.5	20.5	4.6	3.4	9.0
Other arrangements[4]	1.0	1.2	0.6	1.0	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.4	–
All Other Marital Statuses[5]									
Number of children	686	550	136	431	350	81	245	191	54
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	31.0	29.9	35.4	29.0	28.4	31.2	34.0	31.5	(B)
By father	0.5	0.6	–	–	–	–	1.3	1.7	(B)
By other relative	24.7	23.8	28.4	21.1	21.0	21.4	30.8	28.2	(B)
By nonrelative	5.8	5.5	7.0	7.9	7.4	9.8	1.9	1.6	(B)
Care in another home	43.9	45.4	37.5	45.2	47.0	37.5	42.4	43.5	(B)
By relative	21.0	21.2	20.0	17.9	18.9	13.6	26.4	25.4	(B)
By nonrelative	22.9	24.2	17.5	27.3	28.1	23.9	16.0	18.1	(B)
Group care center[2]	18.9	19.0	18.6	19.8	18.5	25.3	17.3	20.4	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	4.5	4.1	6.0	4.8	4.5	6.1	4.1	3.5	(B)
Other arrangements[4]	1.7	1.4	2.6	1.2	1.5	–	2.3	1.1	(B)

B Base too small to show derived measure.
– Rounds to zero.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

[1] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.
[2] Data are for all types of group care.
[3] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.
[4] Includes child taking care of self.
[5] Includes married, husband absent (including separated), widowed, divorced, and never-married women.

Table A-8. Selected Characteristics of Working Mothers With Children Under 5 Years Old: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands. Percent distribution)

Characteristics of mother	All marital statuses	Married, husband present	All other marital statuses[1]
Number of women[2]	3,675	2,998	676
Employment status	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full time	66.0	62.8	80.0
Part time	34.0	37.2	20.0
Race	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	83.2	87.6	63.8
Black	16.8	12.4	36.2
Household composition	100.0	100.0	100.0
Other adult female present	9.9	5.1	31.4
No other adult female present	90.1	94.9	68.6
Family income	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than $6,000	13.0	7.1	39.1
$6,000 to $11,999	29.1	27.4	36.7
$12,000 to $19,999	35.0	39.3	15.8
$20,000 or more	19.3	22.6	4.7
No report on income	3.6	3.6	3.7
Occupation	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional-managerial	19.0	21.1	10.0
Clerical-sales	38.5	38.4	39.0
Blue collar-service	39.8	37.6	49.9
Farm workers	2.6	2.9	1.1

[1] Includes married, husband absent (including separated), widowed, divorced, and never-married women.

[2] Data are only for White women and Black women.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977

Part A. All Employed Wives

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
All Areas					
Number of children	3,088	658	1,186	1,155	88
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	33.4	30.6	31.6	37.0	31.9
By father	16.9	15.7	16.7	18.7	4.0
By other relative	9.8	4.0	9.3	12.7	21.5
By nonrelative	6.7	10.9	5.6	5.6	6.4
Care in another home	41.3	41.9	44.9	39.4	16.6
By relative	18.3	11.5	21.7	19.7	6.6
By nonrelative	23.0	30.4	23.2	19.7	10.0
Group care center[2]	11.6	16.0	14.3	7.2	0.5
Mother cares for child while working[3]	12.6	10.1	7.7	16.3	49.7
Other arrangements[4]	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.1	1.3
Central Cities					
Number of children	757	156	325	272	3
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	35.3	38.4	31.3	38.4	(B)
By father	19.6	23.1	18.5	19.3	(B)
By other relative	9.0	3.0	7.4	14.6	(B)
By nonrelative	6.7	12.3	5.4	4.5	(B)
Care in another home	41.1	38.4	44.7	38.3	(B)
By relative	19.6	14.7	24.3	17.1	(B)
By nonrelative	21.5	23.7	20.4	21.2	(B)
Group care center[2]	12.5	14.4	16.2	7.1	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	10.1	7.0	6.4	16.4	(B)
Other arrangements[4]	0.9	1.8	1.3	—	(B)

See footnotes at end of table.

Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977–Continued

Part A. All Employed Wives–Continued

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
Suburbs					
Number of children. .	1,125	300	474	337	13
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1] . . .	36.5	31.4	35.6	43.0	(B)
By father.	20.1	15.8	18.6	27.0	(B)
By other relative . . .	9.1	4.3	12.0	9.7	(B)
By nonrelative.	7.3	11.3	5.0	6.3	(B)
Care in another home. . .	36.2	37.1	39.4	31.2	(B)
By relative	14.0	9.4	16.6	14.9	(B)
By nonrelative.	22.2	27.7	22.8	16.3	(B)
Group care center[2]	14.2	18.3	16.0	8.6	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	12.2	12.0	7.6	17.1	(B)
Other arrangements[4] . . .	0.9	1.2	1.4	0.2	(B)
Nonmetropolitan Areas					
Number of children. .	1,206	202	387	545	72
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1] . . .	29.3	23.7	26.9	32.6	33.1
By father.	12.1	10.0	12.9	13.3	5.0
By other relative . . .	10.9	4.4	7.5	13.6	26.3
By nonrelative.	6.3	9.3	6.5	5.7	1.8
Care in another home. . .	46.4	51.6	51.6	45.0	13.8
By relative	21.6	12.1	25.6	24.0	8.1
By nonrelative.	24.8	39.5	26.0	21.0	5.7
Group care center[2]	8.7	13.8	10.6	6.4	0.6
Mother cares for child while working[3]	14.6	9.8	9.0	15.7	50.9
Other arrangements[4] . . .	1.0	1.0	1.9	0.3	1.6

B Base too small to show derived measure.
– Rounds to zero.
[1] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.
[2] Data are for all types of group care.
[3] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.
[4] Includes child taking care of self.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977—Continued

Part B. Wives Employed Full Time

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
All Areas					
Number of children	1,957	392	772	742	51
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	28.3	22.8	21.5	37.7	(B)
By father	12.4	9.4	8.6	18.7	(B)
By other relative	9.6	3.8	7.8	13.5	(B)
By nonrelative	6.3	9.6	5.1	5.5	(B)
Care in another home	48.5	52.8	53.9	42.8	(B)
By relative	21.2	13.2	26.3	21.4	(B)
By nonrelative	27.3	39.6	27.6	21.4	(B)
Group care center[2]	13.6	17.4	18.6	7.3	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	8.5	5.7	4.0	12.0	(B)
Other arrangements[4]	1.2	1.3	2.0	0.3	(B)
Central Cities					
Number of children	516	90	234	188	3
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	31.0	31.5	23.0	40.1	(B)
By father	15.4	17.3	11.7	19.2	(B)
By other relative	9.6	1.9	8.1	15.3	(B)
By nonrelative	6.0	12.3	3.2	5.6	(B)
Care in another home	47.0	49.1	51.3	40.6	(B)
By relative	21.6	12.4	28.2	18.2	(B)
By nonrelative	25.4	36.7	23.1	22.4	(B)
Group care center[2]	13.6	15.6	19.7	5.3	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	7.3	2.0	3.9	14.0	(B)
Other arrangements[4]	1.1	1.8	1.9	–	(B)

See footnotes at end of table.

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Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977–Continued

Part B. Wives Employed Full Time–Continued

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
Suburbs					
Number of children. .	653	168	282	198	5
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1] . . .	28.2	19.9	23.3	42.1	(B)
By father.	13.1	.1	8.0	24.8	(B)
By other relative . . .	8.6	4.7	9.5	10.9	(B)
By nonrelative.	6.5	7.1	5.8	6.4	(B)
Care in another home. . .	45.1	46.6	48.8	38.6	(B)
By relative	17.1	11.9	20.3	17.2	(B)
By nonrelative.	28.0	34.7	28.5	21.4	(B)
Group care center[2]	18.5	22.9	22.4	9.7	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	7.1	9.7	3.6	9.3	(B)
Other arrangements[4] . . .	1.1	0.9	1.8	0.3	(B)
Nonmetropolitan Areas					
Number of children. .	789	134	257	355	43
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1] . . .	26.4	20.5	18.1	34.1	(B)
By father.	9.8	5.6	6.4	15.1	(B)
By other relative . . .	10.3	4.1	5.6	13.9	(B)
By nonrelative.	6.3	10.8	6.1	5.1	(B)
Care in another home. . .	52.2	63.0	61.8	46.2	(B)
By relative	24.3	15.3	31.2	25.4	(B)
By nonrelative.	27.9	47.7	30.6	20.8	(B)
Group care center[2]	9.5	11.8	13.3	7.0	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	10.5	3.2	4.6	12.3	(B)
Other arrangements[4] . . .	1.4	1.5	2.3	0.4	(B)

B Base too small to show derived measure.
– Rounds to zero.
[1] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.
[2] Data are for all types of group care.
[3] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.
[4] Includes child taking care of self.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977 –Continued

Part C. Wives Employed Part Time

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
All Areas					
Number of children	1,131	267	414	413	37
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	42.5	42.5	50.4	35.6	(B)
By father	24.7	25.1	31.8	18.7	(B)
By other relative	10.2	4.4	12.1	11.3	(B)
By nonrelative	7.6	13.0	6.5	5.6	(B)
Care in another home	29.0	25.8	28.1	33.3	(B)
By relative	13.3	9.0	13.0	16.7	(B)
By nonrelative	15.7	16.8	15.1	16.6	(B)
Group care center[2]	8.1	13.9	6.3	7.1	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	19.8	16.7	14.6	24.0	(B)
Other arrangements[3]	0.6	1.3	0.7	–	(B)
Central Cities					
Number of children	241	66	91	84	–
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	44.8	(B)	52.4	34.2	–
By father	28.8	(B)	35.9	19.4	–
By other relative	7.8	(B)	5.6	12.8	–
By nonrelative	8.2	(B)	10.9	2.0	–
Care in another home	28.5	(B)	27.7	33.0	–
By relative	15.4	(B)	14.2	14.6	–
By nonrelative	13.1	(B)	13.5	18.4	–
Group care center[2]	10.0	(B)	7.0	11.1	–
Mother cares for child while working[3]	16.2	(B)	12.9	21.7	–
Other arrangements[4]	0.5	(B)	–	–	–

See footnotes at end of table.

Table A-9. Type of Child Care Arrangement Used by Employed Women (Married, Husband Present) for Youngest Child Under 5 Years Old, by Occupation of Wife, Employment Status, and Residence: June 1977—Continued

Part C. Wives Employed Part Time —Continued

(Numbers in thousands)

Type of child care arrangement and residence of wife	Total employed	Occupation of employed wives			
		Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
Suburbs					
Number of children. .	472	132	192	139	9
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1] . . .	48.1	46.2	53.6	44.2	(B)
By father.	29.9	25.6	34.0	30.0	(B)
By other relative . . .	9.9	3.9	15.7	8.1	(B)
By nonrelative.	8.3	16.7	3.9	6.1	(B)
Care in another home. . .	23.8	24.8	25.6	20.6	(B)
By relative	9.7	6.1	11.2	11.6	(B)
By nonrelative.	14.1	18.7	14.4	9.0	(B)
Group care center[2]	8.2	12.4	6.5	7.0	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	19.2	15.0	13.4	28.2	(B)
Other arrangements[4] . . .	0.9	1.6	0.9	—	(B)
Nonmetropolitan Areas					
Number of children. .	418	68	131	189	29
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's home[1]	34.9	(B)	44.2	29.9	(B)
By father.	16.5	(B)	25.7	10.1	(B)
By other relative . . .	12.0	(B)	11.3	13.0	(B)
By nonrelative.	6.4	(B)	7.2	6.8	(B)
Care in another home. . .	35.3	(B)	31.8	42.8	(B)
By relative	16.3	(B)	14.7	21.4	(B)
By nonrelative.	19.0	(B)	17.1	21.4	(B)
Group care center[2]	7.0	(B)	5.4	5.3	(B)
Mother cares for child while working[3]	22.5	(B)	17.6	21.9	(B)
Other arrangements[4] . . .	0.3	(B)	1.1	—	(B)

B Base too small to show derived measure.
— Rounds to zero.
[1] Data exclude children whose mother cares for them while working at home.
[2] Data are for all types of group care.
[3] Data include children whose mother is working either at home or away from home.
[4] Includes child taking care of self.

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-10. Occupation of Wife, by Occupation of Civilian Husband, for Married-Couple Families Where the Wife is Employed Full Time: June 1977

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation of wife	Occupation of civilian husband				
	Total	Professional and Managerial	Clerical and sales workers	Blue collar and service workers	Farm workers
Total	1,747	453	170	1,042	83
Professional and managerial	355	188	29	126	11
Clerical and sales workers	695	195	87	402	11
Blue collar and service workers	647	67	53	508	19
Farm workers	50	3	1	5	41

Source: June 1977 Current Population Survey.

Table A-11. Labor Force Participation Rates of Females 25 to 54 Years Old and General Fertility Rates for Women 15 to 44 Years Old, for Selected Countries: 1975, 1970, and 1960

Area and country	Labor force participation rate			General fertility rate		
	1975	1970	1960	1975	1970	1960
Australia	48.9	42.2	[1]25.6	79	99	112
Austria	[1]51.9	[1]52.5	[1]53.2	73	78	88
Belgium	38.4	36.1	[1]29.7	70	73	89
Canada	50.5	40.0	28.5	69	81	131
Denmark	69.2	56.1	37.0	69	71	82
Federal Republic of Germany	50.3	47.6	[1]44.5	48	67	82
Finland	73.4	66.3	57.6	64	64	89
France	52.9	46.8	[1]39.7	69	83	95
Greece	31.5	[1]31.8	[1]38.9	75	77	80
Italy	33.1	30.2	[1]25.7	73	80	82
Japan	52.1	54.6	53.1	72	73	71
Netherlands	28.5	19.4	17.1	61	88	103
Portugal	38.3	23.6	16.0	87	94	106
Spain	27.1	22.2	16.2	92	93	96
Sweden	74.3	64.2	36.9	65	70	68
Turkey	46.5	52.1	66.0	162	193	224
United Kingdom	[1]56.9	53.9	(NA)	64	85	88
United States	54.8	49.7	42.8	67	88	119

NA Not available.

[1] Estimates made by the Secretariat, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Note: The general fertility rate is the number of live births per 1,000 women 15 to 44 years old.

Source: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Demographic Trends 1950-1990 (Paris: OECD, 1979), tables I and III-9.

Appendix B. Definitions and Explanations

Population coverage. The data shown in this report from the Current Population Survey (CPS) are for the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States. Because only a small proportion of women are inmates of institutions (less than 1 percent of women 15 to 44 years old being institutionalized), the data for the civilian noninstitutional population have a high degree of comparability with data for the total population.

Age. The age classification is based on the age of the person at his last birthday.

Race. The population is divided into three groups on the basis of race: "White," "Black," and "other races." For comparability purposes between the 1965 and 1977 CPS data, the categories "Black" and "other races" were combined.

Marital status. Data refer to marital status at the time of the survey. All women may be categorized as either single (never married) or ever married, the latter consisting of women who are married (including separated), widowed, or divorced. Among married women, two additional categories are also shown, "husband present" or "husband absent" (including separated), in order to show whether or not the husband is a member of the household.

Married-couple family. A married-couple family is a "family" maintained by a husband and wife. Tables displaying data by characteristics of "wives" refer to women living in this type of family.

Own child. The children cared for by a woman. This includes her own (natural) children, adopted children, or stepchildren who are living in the household.

Child care arrangements. Data on child care arrangements were obtained from mothers interviewed in the June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977 supplements to the CPS. The respondent universe and questionnaire used in these three surveys are not strictly comparable with each other as indicated below:

June 1958. Data in this survey were collected from ever-married women who were currently employed full time in May 1958 and who had children under 12 years old living in the household. Questions about who usually looked after the children while their mothers were at work and where was this care provided refer

to May in order to cover arrangements at a time when most children were in school. Therefore, some mothers working full time in June but not in May were excluded from this survey.

Care in the child's home was classified according to whether the usual caretaker was the child's father (or the mother's current husband), another relative, or a nonrelative. Similarly, care provided in another home other than the child's was classified according to whether the usual caretaker was a relative or a nonrelative. The category "group care center" includes day care centers, day nurseries, nursery schools, settlement houses, etc. The remaining two categories include "child cares for self" and "other" arrangements. It is not clear from the published data where the expected response "mother cares for child while working" was enumerated; the relatively large percent (11) noted for the "other" category in 1958 and the brief text discussion of the category in the published report[1] suggest that these responses were included in the "other" category.

February 1965. The supplementary questions on child care in this survey were asked in those sample households in which there was a mother who had worked at least 27 weeks during 1964, either full time or part time, and who had at least one child under 14 years old living at home. The reason for limiting the survey to mothers who had worked at least 27 weeks, according to the published report,[2] was to explore the child care arrangements used by "full-fledged" members of the labor force and not merely intermittent or seasonal workers.

The question on child care arrangements referred to the most recent month the mother worked. For a woman employed during the survey week, this was the month before the interview (January); for other women, the question referred to the last month they had worked. Since 83 percent of the mothers were employed at the time of the survey, the arrangement reported for the great majority of children was the one that was in effect in January 1965. If a mother made more than one arrangement during the month, the one in effect longest was selected.

In this survey, considerably more detail was obtained regarding child care arrangements. For comparability purposes the care in child's home/care in another home dichotomy was preserved along with the same relative/father/nonrelative distinctions as in the June 1958 CPS. As shown in this report, the category "group care center" includes the response "mother worked only during child's school hours." The response category "mother looked after child while working" was also available from this survey. The two remaining categories, "child looked after self" and "other arrangements," made up 0.5 and 0.3 percent, respectively, of the arrangements used for children under 6 years old of all working mothers.

June 1977. Questions on child care arrangements were asked of all currently married women 14 to 44 years old and all separated, divorced, widowed, and

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[1] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Child Care Arrangements of Full-Time Working Mothers*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 378 (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1959), page 16.

[2] U.S. Department of Health, Education, Welfare, *Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers in the United States*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 461 (U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1968).

never married women 18 to 44 years old who had any children less than 5 years old living in the household. Data on specific arrangements were only obtained for women who were employed as of the survey date and only for their two youngest children under 5 years of age. (See appendix D.) Data on child care arrangements relate to the usual provisions made for the child while the mother was at work. Unlike the previous surveys, data on employment and usual child care arrangements relate to the woman at the time of the survey.

Additional questions were also asked on cash payment for child care services, whether or not non-employed women used child care arrangements, and future work and fertility expectations.

"Group care centers" in this report includes nurseries or preschools or day care centers. Use of nursery schools or preschools may be underestimated in this survey because of closings in June. A woman who brings her child to work but places him in a care center at work is recorded as care provided by nonrelative in a day care center. A woman who provided care for the child herself either at the work place or at home, was tabulated as "mother cares for child while working."

Responses were only analyzed for women who answered the child care and payment for child care questions (47A-47C and 48) completely. Only 6 percent of the women in the survey were omitted from the analysis because of nonresponse to these questions. For this reason, comparisons of absolute numbers among surveys should be treated with caution.

It should be noted that differences in the time of year that the child care questions refer to affects the comparability of the data among the different surveys. For example, nursery schools and kindergartens that close during the summer months reduce the potential number of group centers available for child care. Closings of elementary and high schools during June can increase the potential number of siblings and relatives available to care for young children since they are not attending school full time.

In labor force. Persons are classified in the labor force if they were employed as civilians, unemployed, or in the Armed Forces during the survey week (see child care arrangements section for exceptions to this definition). The "civilian labor force" includes all civilians classified as employed or unemployed.

Not in labor force. All civilians who are not classified as employed or unemployed are defined as "not in the labor force."

Employed. Employed persons comprise (1) all civilians who, during the specified week, did any work at all as paid employees or in their own business or profession, or on their own farm, or who worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the family and (2) all those who were not working but who had jobs or businesses from which they were temporarily absent because of illness, bad weather, vacation, or labor-management dispute, or because they were taking time off for personal reasons, whether or not they were paid by their employers for time off, and whether or not they were seeking other jobs. Excluded from the employed group are persons

whose only activity consisted of work around the house (such as own home housework and painting or repairing own home) or volunteer work for religious, charitable, and similar organizations.

Unemployed. Unemployed persons are those civilians who, during the survey week, had no employment but were available for work and (1) had engaged in any specific jobseeking activity *within the past 4 weeks*, such as registering at a public or private employment office, meeting with prosepective employers, checking with friends or relatives, placing or answering advertisements, writing letters of application, or being on a union or professional register; (2) were waiting to be called back to a job from which they had been laid off; or (3) were waiting to report to a new wage or salary job within 30 days.

Full-time and part-time employment. Persons who worked 35 hours or more during the survey week and those who worked 1 to 34 hours but usually work full time are classified as employed full time. Part-time workers are persons who worked 1 to 34 hours during the survey week and usually work only 1 to 34 hours. Persons with a job but not at work during the survey week are classified according to whether they usually work full or part time. In the 1965 survey, persons were classified as having worked at full-time or part-time jobs depending on whether the person worked more or less than 35 hours per week in a majority of the weeks worked in 1964.

Labor force participation rate. The labor force participation rate is the percent of the civilian noninstitutional population in the labor force.

Unemployment rate. The unemployment rate is the percent of the civilian labor force not employed.

Occupation. The data refer to the civilian job held during the survey week. In the 1965 survey, data on occupation refer to the job held longest during 1964.

Family income. Family income represents the total income of all members of the family. Income, as defined in this report, represents total money income, or the sum of money from wages or salary before deductions for personal taxes and other purposes, net income from self-employment, and income from other sources received by all family members.

Years of school completed. Data on years of school completed in this report were derived from the combination of answers to questions concerning the highest grade of school attended by the person and whether or not that grade was finished. The questions on educational attainment apply only to progress in "regular" schools. Such schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools (both junior and senior high), colleges, universities, and professional schools, whether day schools or night schools.

Metropolitan-nonmetropolitan residence. The population residing in standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's) constitutes the metropolitan population. Except in New England, an SMSA is a county or group of contiguous counties which contains at least one city of 50,000 inhabitants or more, or "twin cities" with a combined population of at least 50,000. In addition to the county or counties containing such a city or cities, contiguous counties are included in an SMSA if, according to certain criteria, they are essentially metropolitan in character and are socially and economically integrated with the central county. In New England, SMSA's consist of towns and cities, rather than counties. The metropolitan population in this report is based on SMSA's as defined in the 1970 census and does not include any subsequent additions or changes.

Central cities. Each SMSA must include at least one central city, and the complete title of an SMSA identifies the central city or cities. If only one central city is designated, then it must have 50,000 inhabitants or more. The area title may include, in addition to the largest city, up to two city names on the basis and in the order of the following criteria: (1) The additional city has at least 250,000 inhabitants or (2) the additional city a popu' ion of one-third or more of that of the largest city and minimum population of 25,000. An exception occurs where two cities have contiguous boundaries and constitute, for economic and social purposes, a single community of at least 50,000, the smaller of which must have a population of at least 15,000.

Suburbs. The remainder of the metropolitan area that is not in central cities is designated as outside central cities or "suburbs."

Symbols. A dash (–) represents zero or a number which rounds to zero; "B" means that the base is too small to show the derived measure; "NA" means not available; and "X" means not applicable.

Rounding of estimates. Individual numbers are rounded to the nearest thousand without being adjusted to group totals, which are independently rounded. Derived measures are based on unrounded numbers when possible; otherwise, they are based on the rounded numbers.

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Appendix C. Source and Reliability of the Estimates

SOURCE OF DATA

Most of the estimates in this report are based on data obtained in June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977 by the Bureau of the Census collected in the Current Population Survey (CPS). Other data were obtained from official statistical publications of Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany and from labor force and fertility estimates compiled by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. The source of data in each table and for each figure can be found at the bottom of that table or figure.

The monthly CPS deals mainly with labor force data for the civilian noninstitutional population. Questions relating to labor force participation are asked about each member 14 years old and over in every sample household. In addition, supplementary questions were asked in June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977 about child care arrangements of working mothers. The present CPS sample was initially selected from the 1970 census file and is updated continuously to reflect new constructions where possible. (See the section, "Nonsampling Variability.") The CPS sample in June 1977 was located in 614 areas comprising 1,113 counties, independent cities, and minor civil divisions in the Nation. In this sample, approximately 58,500 occupied households were eligible for interview. Of this number, about 2,500 occupied units were visited but interviews were not obtained because the occupants were not found at home after repeated calls or were unavailable for some other reason.

Samples for previous sample designs were selected from files from the most recently completed census and updated for new construction. The following table provides a description of some aspects of the CPS sample designs in use during the referenced data collection periods:

Description of the Current Population Survey

Time period	Number of[1] sample areas	Housing units eligible	
		Interviewed	Not interviewed
June 1977	614	56,000	2,500
February 1965	357	33,500	1,500
June 1958	330	33,500	1,500

[1] These areas were chosen to provide coverage in each State and the District of Columbia.

The estimation procedure used in this survey involves the inflation of the weighted sample results to independent estimates of the total civilian noninstitutional population of the United States by age, race, and sex. These independent estimates are based on statistics from decennial censuses; statistics on births, deaths, immigration, and emigration; and statistics on the strength of the Armed Forces.

RELIABILITY OF SAMPLE ESTIMATES

Estimates based on a sample may differ somewhat from the figures that would have been obtained if a complete census had been taken using the same questionnaires, instructions, and enumerators. There are two types of errors possible in an estimate based on a sample survey: sampling and nonsampling. The standard errors provided for this report primarily indicate the magnitude of the sampling error. They also partially measure the effect of some nonsampling errors in response and enumeration, but do not measure any systematic biases in the data. The full extent of nonsampling error is unknown. Consequently, particular care should be exercised in the interpretation of figures based on a relatively small number of cases or on small differences between estimates.

Nonsampling variability. Nonsampling errors can be attributed to many sources, e.g., inability to obtain information about all cases in the sample, definitional difficulties, differences in the interpretation of questions, inability or unwillingness on the part of the respondents to provide correct information, inability to recall information, errors made in collection such as in recording or coding the data, errors made in processing the data, errors made in estimating values for missing data, and failure to represent all units with the sample (undercoverage).

Undercoverage in the CPS results from missed housing units and missed persons within sample households. Overall undercoverage, as compared to the level of the decennial census, is about 5 percent. It is known that CPS undercoverage varies with age, sex, and race. Generally, undercoverage is larger for males than for females and larger for Blacks and other races than for Whites. Ratio estimation to independent age-sex-race population controls, as described previously, partially corrects for the bias due to survey undercoverage. However, biases exist in the estimates to the extent that missed persons in missed households or missed persons in interviewed households have different characteristics than interviewed persons in the same age-sex-race group. Further, the independent population controls used have not been adjusted for undercoverage in the 1970 census, which was estimated at 2.5 percent of the population, with similar undercoverage differentials by age, sex, and race as in CPS.

The approximate magnitude of two sources of undercoverage of housing units is known. Of the 83,000,000 housing units in the U.S., about 600,000 new construction housing units other than mobile homes are not represented in the CPS sample because they were assigned building permits prior to January 1970, but building was not completed by the time of the census (i.e., April 1970). Almost all conventional new construction, for which building permits were issued

after 1969, is represented. About 290,000 occupied mobile homes are not represented in CPS; these units were either missed in the census or have been built or occupied since the census. These estimates of missed units are relevant to the June 1977 sample only and not to earlier designs where the extent of undercoverage was generally less. The extent of other sources of undercoverage of housing units is unknown but believed to be small.

Sampling variability. The standard errors given in the following tables are primarily measures of sampling variability, that is, of the variation that occurred by chance because a sample rather than the entire population was surveyed. The sample estimate and its standard error enable one to construct confidence intervals—ranges that would include the average result of all possible samples with a known probability. For example, if all possible samples were selected, each of these was surveyed under essentially the same general conditions and using the same sample design, and an estimate and its standard error were calculated from each sample, then:

1. Approximately 68 percent of the intervals from one standard error below the estimate to one standard error above the estimate would include the average result of all possible samples.

2. Approximately 90 percent of the intervals from 1.6 standard errors below the estimate to 1.6 standard errors above the estimate would include the result of all possible samples.

3. Approximately 95 percent of the intervals from two standard errors below the estimate to two standard errors above the estimate would include the average result of all possible samples.

The average estimate derived from all possible samples may or may not be contained in any particular computed interval. However, for a particular sample, one can say with a specified confidence that the average estimate derived from all possible samples is included in the confidence interval.

Standard errors may also be used to perform hypothesis testing, a procedure for distinguishing between population parameters using sample estimates. The most common types of hypotheses appearing in this report are 1) The population parameters are identical or 2) they are different. An example of this would be comparing the percent of White women paying for child care arrangements versus the percent of Black women paying for child care arrangements. Tests may be performed at various levels of significance, where a level of significance is the probability of concluding that the parameters are different when, in fact, they are identical.

All statements of comparison in the text have passed a hypothesis test at the 0.10 level of significance or better, and most have passed a hypothesis test at the 0.05 level of significance or better. This means that, for most differences cited in the text, the estimated difference between parameters is greater than twice the

standard error of the difference. For the other differences mentioned, the estimated difference between parameters is between 1.6 and 2.0 times the standard error of the difference. When this is the case, the statement of comparison will be qualified in some way, e.g., by use of the phrase "some evidence."

Comparability with other data. Data obtained from the CPS and other governmental sources are not entirely comparable. This is due in large part to differences in interviewer training and experience and in differing survey processes. Also, data on child care arrangements were obtained from mothers interviewed in the June 1958, February 1965, and June 1977 supplements to the CPS. The respondent universes and questionnaires used in these surveys are not strictly comparable with each other. For example, the differing reference periods of the child care questions affects the comparability of the data between the different surveys. For further differences, see "Appendix B. Definitions and Explanations." These are additional components of error not reflected in the standard error tables. Therefore, caution should be used in comparing results between these different sources.

Caution should also be exercised in comparing metropolitan and nonmetropolitan area estimates from the CPS from 1977 to those from earlier years. Methodological and sample design changes have occurred in these recent years resulting in relatively large differences in the metropolitan and nonmetropolitan area estimates.

Note when using small estimates. Summary measures from CPS (such as percent distributions) are shown in the report only when the base of the measure is 75,000 or greater. Because of the large standard errors involved, there is little chance that summary measures would reveal useful information when computed on a smaller base. Estimated numbers are shown, however, even though the relative standard errors of these numbers are larger than those for corresponding percentages. These smaller estimates are provided primarily to permit such combinations of the categories as serve each user's need.

Standard errors for data based on surveys other than CPS. Standard errors for data based on surveys other than CPS can be found in the appropriate publication footnoted at the end of the tables.

CPS standard error tables and their use. In order to derive standard errors that would be applicable to a large number of estimates and could be prepared at a moderate cost, a number of approximations were required. Therefore, instead of providing an individual standard error for each estimate, generalized sets of standard errors are provided for various types of characteristics. As a result, the sets of standard errors provided give an indication of the order of magnitude of the standard error of an estimate rather than the precise standard error.

The figures in tables C-1 and C-2 provide approximations to standard errors of estimated numbers and estimated percentages. Standard errors for intermediate

values not shown in the generalized tables of standard errors may be approximated by linear interpolation. Estimated standard errors for specific characteristics cannot be obtained from tables C-1 or C-2 without the use of factors in table C-3. These factors must be applied to the generalized standard errors in order to adjust for the combined effect of sample design and estimating procedure on the value of the characteristic.

Two parameters (denoted "a" and "b") are used to calculate standard errors for each type of characteristic; they are presented in table C-4. These parameters were used to calculate the standard errors in tables C-1 and C-2, and to calculate the factors in table C-3. They also may be used to directly calculate the standard errors for estimated numbers and percentages. Methods for direct computation are given in the following sections.

Standard errors of estimated numbers. The approximate standard error, σ_x, of an estimated number shown in this report can be obtained in two ways. It may be obtained by use of the formula

$$\sigma_x = f\sigma \qquad (1)$$

where f is the appropriate factor from table C-3, and σ is the standard error on the estimate obtained by interpolation from table C-1. Alternatively, standard errors may be approximated by the following formula (2), from which the standard errors were calculated in table C-1. Use of this formula will provide more accurate results than the use of formula (1) above.

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{ax^2 + bx} \qquad (2)$$

Here x is the size of the estimate and a and b are the parameters in table C-4 associated with the particular type of characteristic. When calculating standard errors for numbers from cross-tabulations involving different characteristics, use the factor or set of parameters for the characteristic which will give the largest standard error.

Table C-1. Standard Errors of CPS Estimated Numbers: 1977

(68 chances out of 100. Numbers in thousands)

Size of estimate	Standard error	Size of estimate	Standard error
10	4	1,500	46
25	6	2,500	57
50	9	5,000	72
100	12	7,500	77
250	19	9,000	75
500	27	10,500	71
750	33	12,000	63
1,000	38		

Table C-2. Standard Errors of CPS Estimated Percentages: 1977

(68 chances out of 100)

Base of estimated percentage (thousands)	Estimated percentage				
	2 or 98	5 or 95	10 or 90	25 or 75	50
75	2.0	3.1	4.3	6.2	7.2
100	1.7	2.7	3.7	5.4	6.2
250	1.1	1.7	2.4	3.4	3.9
500	0.8	1.2	1.7	2.4	2.8
750	0.6	1.0	1.4	2.0	2.3
1,000	0.5	0.9	1.2	1.7	2.0
1,500	0.4	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.6
2,500	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.2
5,000	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.9
7,500	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7
9,000	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7
10,500	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6
12,000	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6

Illustration of the computation of the standard error of an estimated number. Table A-3 of this report shows that in June 1977 there were 1,394,000 children under 3 years old whose mothers were employed full time. Using formula (2) and the appropriate "a" and "b" parameters from table C-4, the standard error[1] of the estimate is about

$$\sqrt{(-0.000202)\,(1{,}394{,}000)^2 + 3082\,(1{,}394{,}000)} \approx 62{,}000$$

This means that the 68-percent confidence interval for the estimated number of children under 3 years old whose mothers were employed full time is from 1,332,000 to 1,456,000. The 95-percent confidence interval is 1,270,000 to 1,518,000.

Standard errors of estimated percentages. The reliability of an estimated percentage, computed using sample data for both numerator and denominator, depends upon both the size of the percentage and the size of the total upon which the percentage is based. Estimated percentages are relatively more reliable than the corresponding estimates of the numerators of the percentages, particularly if the percentages are 50 percent or more. When the numerator and denominator of the percentage are in different categories, use the factor or parameters from table C-3 or C-4 indicated by the numerator. The approximate standard error, $\sigma_{(x,p)}$, of an estimated percentage can be obtained by use of the formula

$$\sigma_{(x,p)} = f\sigma \qquad (3)$$

In this formula, f is the appropriate factor from table C-3 and σ is the standard error on the estimate from table C-2. Alternatively, standard errors may be

[1] Use of formula (1) and applying the appropriate factor from table C-3 also gives a standard error of approximately 1.4 x 44,000 = 62,000.

Table C-3. "f" Factors to be Applied to Tables C-1 and C-2 to Approximate Standard Errors

Type of characteristic	Value of f
Employment, full time and part time, occupation of mothers and child care of children	
Total areas and metropolitan areas by—	
Youngest child	1.0
Multiple children	1.4
Number of women	1.0
Nonmetropolitan areas by—	
Youngest child	1.2
Number of women	1.2
Education of mother by multiple children	1.6
Family income by—	
Multiple children	1.6
Number of women	1.1
Marital status of mother by—	
Youngest child	0.9
Number of women	0.9

Note: To estimate standard errors for CPS data collected in 1958 and 1965, multiply the above factors by 1.2.

Table C-4. Parameters for Direct Computation of Standard Errors of Estimated Numbers and Percentages

	Parameters	
Type of characteristic	a	b
Employment, full time and part time, occupation of mothers and child care of children		
Total areas and metropolitan areas by—		
Youngest child	−0.000101	1541
Multiple children	−0.000202	3082
Number of women	−0.000015	1541
Nonmetropolitan areas by—		
Youngest child	−0.000152	2312
Number of women	−0.000023	2312
Education of mother by multiple children	−0.000272	4128
Family income by—		
Multiple children	−0.000248	3770
Number of women	−0.000017	1721
Marital status of mother by—		
Youngest child	−0.000091	1389
Number of women	−0.000014	1389

Note: To estimate standard errors for CPS data collected in 1958 and 1965, multiply the above parameters by 1.5.

approximated by formula (4), from which standard errors in table C-2 were calculated; direct computation will give more accurate results than use of the standard error tables and the factors.

$$\sigma_{(x,p)} = \sqrt{\frac{b}{x} \cdot p\,(100 - p)} \qquad (4)$$

Here x is the size of the subclass of children or householders which is the base of the percentage, p is the percentage ($0 < p < 100$), and b is the parameter in table C-4 associated with the particular type of characteristic in the numerator of the percentage.

Illustration of the computation of the standard error of a percentage. Table A-3 shows that of the 1,394,000 children under 3 years old whose mothers were employed full time, 29.9 percent were cared for in the child's home. From table C-4, the appropriate b parameter is 3082. Using formula (4), the approximate standard error[3] on an estimate of 29.9 percent is

$$\sqrt{\frac{3082}{1{,}394{,}000}\,(29.9)\,(70.1)} \doteq 2.2 \text{ percent}$$

Consequently, the 68-percent confidence interval for the percentage of children under 3 years old whose mothers were employed full time and who were cared for in their home is from 27.7 to 32.1 percent. The 95-percent confidence interval is from 25.5 to 34.3 percent.

Standard error of a difference. For a difference between two sample estimates, the standard error is approximately equal to

$$\sigma_{(x-y)} = \sqrt{\sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2} \qquad (5)$$

where σ_x and σ_y are the standard errors of the estimates x and y; the estimates can be of numbers, percents, ratios, etc. This will represent the actual standard errors quite accurately for the difference between two estimates of the same characteristic in two different areas, or for the difference between separate and uncorrelated characteristics in the same area. If, however, there is a high positive (negative) correlation between the two characteristics, the formula will overestimate (underestimate) the true standard error.

Illustration of the computation of the standard error of a difference. As stated earlier, table A-3 shows that in 1977, 29.9 percent of the children under 3 years old whose mother was employed full time were cared for in the child's home. Table A-3 also shows that in 1965, 46.0 percent of the children under 3 years old

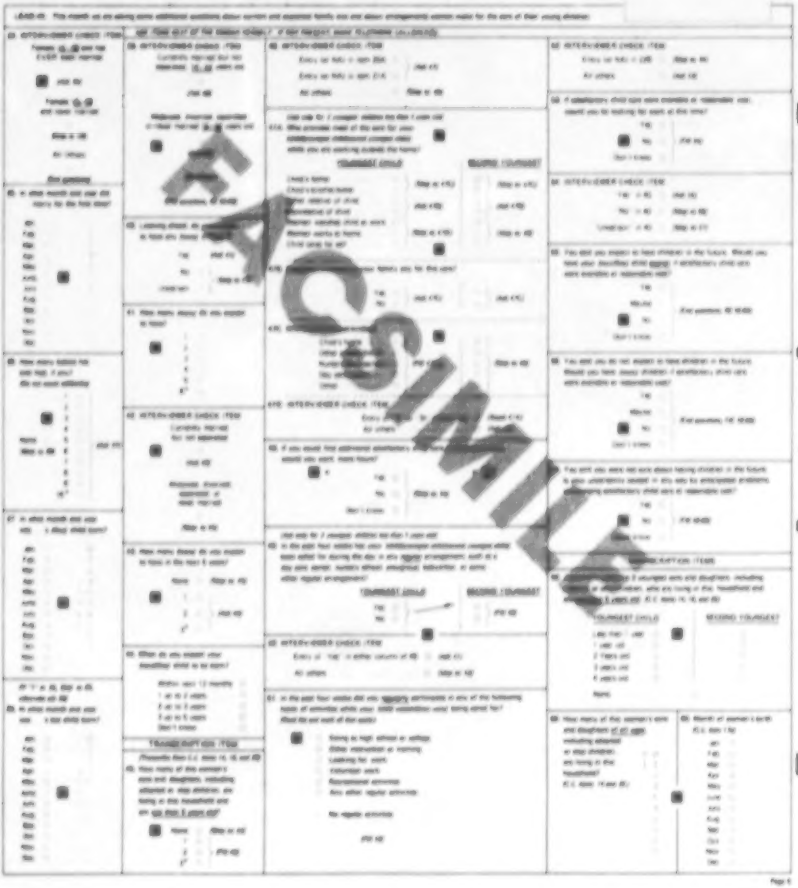
[3] Using formula (3), the appropriate factor from table C-3 (1.4) and table C-2, the approximate standard error is 2.1 percent.

whose mothers were employed full time (1,024,000) were cared for in the child's home. Thus, the apparent difference between the 1965 and 1977 percents is 16.1 percent. Using formula (4) and the appropriate b parameter (3082 x 1.5 = 4623) from table C-4, the approximate standard error on the 46.0 percent is 3.3 percent. Therefore, using formula (5), the standard error of the estimated difference of 16.1 percent is about

$$\sqrt{(2.2)^2 + (3.3)^2} \doteq 4.0 \text{ percent}$$

This means that the 68-percent confidence interval for the difference between the percent of children under 3 years old whose mothers were employed full time and who were cared for in their homes in 1977 and in 1965 is from 12.1 to 20.1 percent, and the 95-percent confidence interval is from 8.1 to 24.1 percent.

Appendix D. June 1977 Supplemental Questionnaire



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